AN HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE WORLD

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AN

HISTORICAL ATLAS;

IN A SERIES OF MAPS

OF THE WORLD AS KNOWN AT DIFFERENT PERIODS;

CONSTRUCTED UPON AN UNIFORM SCALE, AND

COLOURED ACCORDING TO THE POLITICAL CHANGES OF EACH PERIOD:

ACCOMPANIED BY A NARRATIVE

OF THE LEADING EVENTS EXHIBITED IN THE MAPS:

FORMING TOGETHER

A GENERAL VIEW OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

FROM THE CREATION TO A.D. 1828.

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OF MAGDALEN HALL, OXFORD; AND BARRISTER AT LAW OF THE HON. SOC. OF LINCOLNS INN.

THE MAPS ENGRAVED BY SIDNEY HALL.

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PREFACE.

It is hoped that the work now offered to the Public, will be found to rank among those which convey to the reader, at once, their intent, their plan, and in these, their own recommendation.

The leading idea of the volume is that of presenting the known history of the World as a whole, instead of in fragments;—and as a consistent and uniform whole, instead of in parts, drawn after various proportions, and on differing or even opposite plans.

What has been the common system, in the instruction of youth in this necessary part of human knowledge? A juvenile student has usually had put into his hands a History of Greece,—another of Rome,—perhaps one of England,—and sometimes, a volume or two of Universal History, which from its compressed character, possesses little interest, and gains no possession of the mind. Possibly these narratives may even be accompanied by a few maps, each drawn upon a different scale, and relating to a different period. And after going over this short course, which it is to be feared comprises all that the greater number of school-boys are introduced into,—what ideas of the History of the World is the scholar likely to have gained? Unless his mind should happen to be very peculiarly constituted, the respective dates of events, and the comparative extent of the countries contained in different maps will have entirely escaped him. Or should he partially retain some of these points, they will yet be of little use in giving him a correct knowledge of the great outline of History. Has he the least idea, for instance that at the very time when Alexander was weeping the want of a new world to conquer, —the Romans, whose conquest might have been less easy than that of another world of Persians, lay unheeded behind him, each being mutually ignorant or careless of the other's existence. Or does he know that the greatest empire yet obtained among men, was not that of Alexander or the Cæsars,—but was the conquest of a wandering Tartar Chief. In short, what general idea can he have gained of the bold and leading outlines of History, when his attention has only been directed to one or two minute spots on the earth's surface, and to them only during a particular series of years.

It is not wished to undervalue or discountenance the placing before youth, more especially, the splendid and animating stories of ancient Greece and Rome. But at the same time let it be conceded, that these interesting passages of history are but fragments, and that if the pupil's attention is wholly or principally occupied with them, he is likely to gain only a very imperfect or erroneous idea of Universal History.

The plan now adopted seems to the editors to be that best suited to the object; which is, the affording a complete and just, although rapid and condensed, view of all the great political changes in human society. It consists of a succession of maps exhibiting the state of the known world at more than twenty periods. Its peculiarity consists in exhibiting every thing in its real dimensions and just proportions, and in adhering to the same scale in all successive delineations. Greece and Persia are seen, for instance, in the relations which they actually bore to each other; and are not shewn, as in many atlasses,—the one on a scale of 20 miles to an inch, the other on a scale of 200:—And when once laid down, they remain, in each subsequent map, on the same spot, and of the same dimensions.

By rapidly passing the eye, therefore, over the engravings, the student, always finding the same territory in the same part of the Map, sees by the changes of colour, the various Empires which succeed each other. Like the watchman on some beacon-tower, he views the hills and peopled valleys around him, always the same in situation and in form, but under every changing aspect of the hours and the seasons. Now basking in the meridian sunshine, then sinking into the gloom of even, and again emerging into the light of returning day.

In thus exhibiting the state of the World at different periods, it became necessary, in order to preserve consistency and truth, to exhibit, in the earlier stages of the review, only a very small portion of the earth's surface. The reason of this is obvious. A map entitled, "*The World, as known to the Ancients,*" is found in most existing atlasses, and our readers must often have met with such an one. Now our plan was, to exhibit the 'World as known to the ancients,' not of one period, but of several successive periods. We had to shew the world as known in the days of Moses;—the world as known to Cyrus;—to Alexander, &c. And to do this with truth, it was necessary to shew, at each period, only that part of the world which there is reason to believe was actually known to the geographers and statesmen of that time. Still, however, in doing this, we were not to forget that the real facts of the earth's geography were the same at each of these periods as at present, and that China and America were as much in existence in the days of Cyrus as they are now, although unknown to the great mass of civilized human beings. We were not, then, to omit these countries from our maps, as though they had no existence, and yet we were not to exhibit them, as if forming part of the known world of the age so

delineated. The only course left to us seemed to be, to bring the appearance of a cloud over the skirts of every map, exhibiting at each period only the known parts of the globe, and lifting up or drawing off this cloud as the limits of the known world gradually extended.

Every successive map thus combines, at a single glance, both the Geography and the History of the age to which it refers; exhibiting by its *extent*, the boundaries of the known world, and by its *colours*, the respective empires into which that world was distributed.

Another point must be briefly mentioned. There have always been, in every age of the world, parts of the earth, not unknown to the geographer or the historian, but classed, by their want of civilization, of regular government and of known and recognized limits, under the general description of *barbarous countries*. Such was Scythia through all antiquity, and such is the interior of Africa at the present moment.

Now, in distinguishing the successive kingdoms of the earth in our maps by appropriate colours, it was obviously impossible to assign any distinguishing tints to tracts like these. The colours we have used being generally meant to point out and distinguish one state or empire from another, and to shew their respective limits and extent of dominion, were obviously inapplicable to deserts peopled by tribes having no settled form of government, or political existence, or known territorial limits. These tracts of country, therefore, we have covered alike in all the periods, with a flat olive shading; which the eye of the student will soon observe on the skirts of all the maps, and which designates throughout the work, those barbarous and uncivilized countries to which we have adverted.

We will now proceed to give a rapid sketch of the contents of the volume, which consists, as we have already explained, of a series of maps of the World, exhibiting its political and geographical history at the various successive periods the dates of which are affixed. These Maps are all drawn upon one and the same scale, and therefore shew any particular territory always on the same spot, and of the same dimensions: the political changes being exhibited by the alteration of the colouring.

The First Period is only given because every narrative, to be complete, must have a commencement. It shews the spot from whence the History of the World takes its first date: but no existing records furnish us with any account of the political arrangements of the antediluvians, or of their immediate successors. One colour, therefore, is spread over the whole, merely that the Map may not appear unlike its successors.

The Second Period exhibited, is that of B. C. 1491, the era of the departure of the Israelites from Egypt. Here the student will observe the rise of the Egyptian, the Syrian, and the great Assyrian or Babylonian Empire.

The Third Period chosen is that of the Foundation of Rome, B. C. 753. The Assyrian Empire is the leading feature of this time.

The Fourth Period chosen is that of B. C. 529, and the principal feature of the map will be seen to be the Empire of Cyrus, which comprehended the greatest part of the then known surface of the globe.

The Fifth Period, dated B. C. 323, exhibits the Græco-Macedonian Empire of Alexander, and

The Sixth Period shews the division of his monarchy into the four kingdoms of Syria, Egypt, Macedonia, and Thrace,—B. C. 301.

The Seventh Period, B. C. 146, is chiefly distinguished by the rise of the Roman Empire, which began to be apparent at the close of the second Punic war.

The Eighth Period is that of Augustus, A. D. 1, in which the Roman Empire in its greatest strength and glory, is the leading feature.

The Ninth Period shews the same Empire under Constantine, A. D. 337, in which its limits are somewhat extended, although its strength was already on the decline.

The Tenth Period, A. D. 395, exhibits the separation of the Empire into Eastern and Western, at the death of Theodosius;—and

The Eleventh Period, the subversion of the Western Empire by the northern nations, A. D. 476.

In the Twelfth Period we leave what is usually termed Ancient History, and enter upon Modern. The first great kingdom of Modern Europe, that of Charlemagne, A. D. 814, is the principal object of attention;—and

The Thirteenth Period exhibits the separation of that kingdom shortly after the death of its founder, being dated A. D. 912.

The Fourteenth Period is fixed at A. D. 1100, being the period of the first crusade. Several of the present European nations will be seen now first emerging into political existence.

The Fifteenth Period is principally marked by the appearance of the great Tartar Empire of Jenghis Khan, which reached its zenith A. D. 1294.

The Sixteenth Period, A. D. 1498, opens to our view, for the first time, the New World of America.

The Seventeenth Period comes down to the death of Charles V. of Germany, A. D. 1551.

The Eighteenth Period is dated at the Restoration of the Stuarts, A. D. 1660.

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The Twentieth Period exhibits the Empire of Napoleon Bonaparte at its greatest elevation, A. D. 1811;—while

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B.C.2348. THE DELUGE.

Engraved by Sidl Hall Bury St Bloomsb

London Published June 1828 by Seeley & Burnside 169 Fleet Street.

FIRST PERIOD.

FROM THE CREATION TO THE DELUGE, 2348 B. C.

(TO A. M. 1656.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

Our very limited knowledge of the Earth at this period, renders it unnecessary for us to commence here the system of colouring and arrangement to be pursued in our future maps. The propriety, indeed, of furnishing an engraving at all was matter of hesitation; but it appeared requisite, as the beginning of all *Geography* and all *History;* and as exhibiting the spot which was first inhabited by the human race, and that from which the earth was re-peopled after the Deluge.

THE origin and duration of THE EARTH have been objects of laborious inquiry to many learned and ingenious men. With respect to its duration the result of their research has been that it existed about 4000 years before the Birth of Christ. The vulgar Era, as it is called, is 4004 years, and the more exact computation of modern chronology makes it 3999 years. The former period, however, is still almost universally adopted in order to avoid the confusion that would be caused by a change. As to the origin of the earth we should be entirely ignorant, had we not the aid of the Holy Scriptures. In them we have a narrative of which the unequalled grandeur and simplicity are the more striking when compared with the extravagant fables which have been founded upon tradition. Although this narrative must be familiar to our readers, we cannot, with due regard to the completeness of our work, proceed without briefly touching upon it. By the power of the Divine command, form and order were given to Chaos, the course of time was marked by a succession of light and darkness, and the waters were divided from the land. The creation of the world, and all the irrational beings and inanimate things which it contains, occupied the space of five days;—on the sixth, man was called into being; and the seventh was appointed a day of holy rest. The garden of Eden, in which ADAM and EVE, the parents of mankind, were placed, is believed to have been situated in Mesopotamia. This opinion is founded on a passage in the second chapter of Genesis. They lived in a state of innocence and happiness until, by disobedience to the commands of God, they provoked his anger and were driven out of Paradise. The state of man thus became sinful. The first great crime which this corruption of nature produced, was the murder of Abel, the son of Adam and Eve, by Cain his brother. After several generations had passed away, the wickedness of the world became so great, that the wrath of God was provoked, and he destroyed its inhabitants by a DELUGE, which covered the earth for 150 days. *This event is believed to have happened about* 1656 *years after the creation, and B. C.* 2348. NOAH, with his wife, and his three sons, SHEM, HAM, and JAPHET, and their wives, were the only persons who were saved: they had found refuge, during the flood, in an ark, which, on its subsiding, rested on Mount Ararat, in Armenia. From Shem, the nations of Asia are said to be derived; from Japhet, those of Europe; and from Ham, those of Africa. After the flood, God was pleased to enter into a covenant with Noah, that there should not any more be a flood to destroy the earth, and fixed his bow in the clouds as a token of this covenant.

B.C.1491. THE EXODUS OF THE ISRAELITES.

London Published June 1793 by Sayer & Bennett 69 Fleet Street.

Engraved by Sidl Hall Bury St Edmunds

SECOND PERIOD.

FROM THE DELUGE, 2348 B.C., TO THE EXODUS OF THE ISRAELITES, 1491 B.C.

(A. M. 1656 to A. M. 2513.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
The ASSYRIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Assyria	Blue.
Mesopotamia	
Chaldæa	
Armenia	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
SYRIA	Light Brown.
CANAAN	Red.
EGYPT	Lilac.

THE descendants of Noah multiplied quickly and were all of one language. After they had removed from Armenia, where they had dwelt since the flood, to the plains of Shinar, in Chaldæa, they determined to build a city whose top might reach to Heaven. To punish their presumption, God caused a confusion of tongues amongst them and *scattered them abroad over the earth about the year* 2240 *B. C.* The place were this event occurred, was afterwards called *Babel;* which signifies confusion. About 320 years afterwards it pleased God to take ABRAHAM the son of Terah, under his peculiar protection, and to command him to remove from Mesopotamia, where he dwelt, to the land of Canaan, which was to be possessed by him and his seed for ever. Abraham journeyed thither, and established himself in the land. Here the rite of circumcision was established and ISAAC the son of Abraham was born. The blessing of the Lord on Abraham was continued to JACOB the son of Isaac; he was afterwards named *Israel,* and he was the father of the Patriarchs from whom the twelve tribes sprang. The touching and beautiful history of Joseph's dreams, captivity, and prosperity, need not be repeated here. It is of historical importance principally as it explains how it happened that the family of Israel went into Egypt. It was about the year 1750 B.C. that the descendants of Abraham thus changed their place of habitation in consequence of a severe famine, and on the invitation of Joseph. For a time they were kindly treated; but a king ascending the throne who knew not Joseph, they were reduced to bondage and subjected to insult and cruelty, and at length in order to lessen their numbers, orders were issued that all the male children born of Israelitish women should be put to death. In consequence of this decree a woman of the name of Jochebed placed her infant son in a basket near the river. He was there found by the king's daughter, who out of compassion caused him to be taken care of, and committed him, without knowing her, to the care of his own mother; gave him the name of MOSES, and had him brought up as if he had been her own son. When Moses grew up to manhood he was informed of his real birth, and seeing an Egyptian ill-treating an Israelite, he slew him and afterwards fled to Midian. While he was there, the king of Egypt died, but his successor was equally oppressive in his conduct to the Israelites; and God appeared to Moses and commanded him to go to Egypt, accompanied by his brother Aaron, to deliver his brethren out of bondage. Arrived at Goshen, they called together an assembly of the people, and Aaron informed them of the commands and promises which Moses had received. The people hearing what the Lord had said to Moses, and seeing the miracles which he was enabled to perform, believed and worshipped God. The king of Egypt, however, treating God's message with contempt, the country was afflicted with a succession of plagues, none of which fell upon the Israelites. The last and most terrible of these visitations was the death of all the first-born of Egypt. In this instance, as in the others, *the Israelites were passed over:* and hence the festival of *the Passover* was instituted. The king of Egypt at length permitted the Israelites to depart, and they *set out on their journey from Rameses to Succoth about* 1491 *B. C.*

Of the state of the world at this early period, and indeed for some centuries afterwards, little is known. Except where a ray of light is cast here and there by the Sacred Writings, all is impenetrable darkness, occasionally relieved only by the faint and uncertain glimmerings of tradition.

From the adventures of Joseph, it is manifest that EGYPT had in his time an established system of government, and the concurrent voice of antiquity declares that country to have been the great fountain of knowledge. Amongst the earliest traditional stories, are those which relate to Osiris and Isis his queen, both ranked among the Egyptian Gods. The names of the kings cannot be discovered, much less can their chronology be accurately arranged. The difficulty of researches in this respect is heightened by the custom, which prevailed in very ancient times, of giving names, not arbitrarily, but with reference to some particular quality or circumstance connected with the person to be named.

Sometimes too the same epithet became the name of a line of Kings, as *Pharaoh*, in Egypt; and thus the exploits and history of many were not unfrequently heaped together upon one who had acquired greater distinction than the rest. It appears, that at a period of very remote antiquity, Egypt was divided into the three provinces, of This, Thebæ, and Memphis; and that Memphis was the ruling state. It is said, that about the year 1920 B. C. regular monarchy was established by Sethon or Egyptus; and that about 1680 a new dynasty began to reign, who are called the Shepherd-kings, and are supposed to have been of Phœnician origin.

Of the monarchs of ASSYRIA, so called from Ashur or Assur, mentioned in Scripture, the earliest whose name has been celebrated, is Ninus. To him succeeded Semiramis, of whose conquests many wonders are related. It is mentioned in the Mosaic History, that Chaldæa was taken possession of by Nimrod. He began his kingdom with four towns—Babel, Erech, Accad, and Calneh. His race is said to have lasted about 220 years, and to have been succeeded by a dynasty of Arabian Kings. Chaldæa, including Babylonia, afterwards became subject to Assyria; and one of the most famous acts of Semiramis was the erection of many astonishing works of defence and ornament at Babylon.

Of other countries, nothing worthy of attention is ascertained up to this period. There is abundance of fiction, but there are no facts sufficiently authenticated to be deemed matter of history.

The boundaries of the ASSYRIAN EMPIRE are uncertain, but it is said by some authors to have embraced all the countries to the North and East of the Euphrates contained in our present sketch, and even to have extended still further.

B.C.753. THE FOUNDATION OF ROME.

London Published June 1st 1828 by Sayer & Burnside 169 Fleet Street.

Engraved by Sidl Hall Bury St Bloomsbr

THIRD PERIOD.

FROM THE EXODUS OF THE ISRAELITES, 1491 B.C., TO THE FOUNDATION OF ROME, 753 B. C.

(A. M. 2513 to A. M. 3251.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
The ASSYRIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Assyria	Blue.
Mesopotamia	
Armenia	
Media	
JUDAH and ISRAEL	Red.
EGYPT	Lilac.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
ASIA-MINOR, (territorial divisions uncertain.)	Orange.
SYRIA	Light Brown.
PHŒNICIA and CARTHAGO	Dark Blue.
GRECIA	Crimson.
ITALIA	Yellow.

THE ISRAELITES, instead of pursuing a direct route through the land of the Philistines, first journeyed southward. In their journey they were guided by a pillar of fire by night, and of cloud by day, by the resting and motion of which they regulated their times of halting and going forward. Before they reached THE RED SEA, which they had to pass, the king of Egypt, recovering from the panic into which he had been thrown by the miracles of Moses, pursued them with a host of men, chariots, and horses. The faith of the Israelites was shaken, and their fears excited them to expressions of ingratitude against their deliverer, until Moses, stretching forth his hands, divided the waters. They stood on either side as a wall, while the Israelites were passing through, but closed upon the Egyptians, whose whole host perished. The wanderings of the Israelites in the wilderness continued for forty years. During that time they were sustained by the miraculous interposition of the Almighty; the ten commandments were delivered from Mount Sinai, by Moses, and the rites and ceremonies of the Jewish religion were instituted. Moses lived to see the promised land of Canaan from Mount Pisgah, and died in the land of Moab at the age of 120 years. He was succeeded by JOSHUA, under whose command the Israelites took the city of Jericho, in the forty-first year after the going forth from Egypt, and successively overcame many of the kings of the neighbouring countries. Joshua at length rested from his conquests, and a partition of the lands amongst the several tribes took place. He died about the year 1429 B. C. After this period the Israelites were governed by judges, and were engaged in various contests with the inhabitants of the neighbouring country. Nothing, however, occurred worthy of mention, until about the year 1100, when SAUL, of the tribe of Benjamin, was anointed king of Israel, by Samuel, the last of the judges. About fifty years afterwards DAVID succeeded Saul, who fell by his own hand, after sustaining a defeat from the Philistines. David was successful in war, and made Jerusalem, which he had acquired by conquest, the capital of his kingdom. To him succeeded his son SOLOMON, about the year 1015 B. C. His wisdom has become proverbial, and his reign was the golden period of Jewish History. He possessed immense wealth, enjoyed peculiar marks of divine favour, and reigned over all the kings from the Euphrates to the borders of Egypt. The most celebrated act of his life was the building of the Temple. After his death, *about the year 975 B. C., the kingdom was divided into Judah and Israel.* Of the former portion, Rehoboam, and of the latter, Jeroboam, became king. Judah consisted of the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, and Jerusalem was its capital. Israel consisted of the other ten tribes; the capital was Sichem, then Tirzah, and afterwards Samaria. Of the Philistines there is nothing worth recording, except what is to be found in the Scriptures, as connected with the Jewish History. At no distant period from the separation of Judah and Israel, they appear to have become subject successively to different neighbouring monarchies, until their very name perished, according to what had been foretold of them.

Amongst the monarchs of EGYPT whose names have been handed down to us as having filled the throne after the race of the shepherd-kings, the most celebrated during our present period are Mœris, in whose reign the lake of that name was dug, Sesostris, whose conquests are said to have extended from the Banks of the Ganges to Thrace, Actisanes, an Ethiopian who is said to have conquered Egypt, Mendes, in whose time the labyrinth, and Cheops, in whose time the great pyramid is said to have been built, and Sesac, who pillaged Jerusalem. During this period Egypt was divided into the smaller states of Tanais, Bubastis, and Sais.

Of the monarchs of ASSYRIA who succeeded Ninyas, nothing is known until the time of Sardanapalus, whose name has become proverbial for effeminacy and dissoluteness of life. He was driven from the throne by

Arbaces, a Mede, *and destroyed himself by fire, with his riches and his concubines, about the year* 888, *B. C.* After the fall of Sardanapalus it is believed that a second Assyrian monarchy was established, but of its origin nothing satisfactory is known. Jonah preached against Nineveh about 800, and Phul made his inroad into Israel about 770, B. C. Babylon and Media are said to have been for a short time independent after the death of Sardanapalus, but they soon fell again under subjection to Assyria. Nabonassar, a king of Babylon, tributary to Assyria, is stated to have lived about 747, B. C.

Of the history of the countries of ASIA MINOR, within our present period, little is known. It is not even clear what portion of them was subject to the Assyrian Empire. The chief tribes of the primitive inhabitants were the Phrygians, the Syrians, and the Pelasgi. The first states of the formation of which any distinct traces are to be found, are Phrygia, Troy, and Lydia. Of Upper Phrygia there is no history beyond vague accounts of the existence of some monarchs alternately named Midas and Gordius. Of Troy we should know as little, but for the immortal poem in which the wars of the Greeks and Trojans are recorded. The most prominent names of monarchs, which occur before the period of the siege of Troy, are Teucer, Dardanus, Laomedon, and Iolus. It was in the reign of Priam that the Greeks landed on the Trojan territory. The war lasted ten years, and *ended in the destruction of Troy, about* 1184, *B. C.* The minute detail given by Homer, who flourished about 240 years after the fall of Troy, must be considered as the production of poetic ingenuity, founded upon traditionary legends. To agree with those who maintain that it has no foundation whatever in any actual occurrences, requires no less credulity than it does to believe that the whole story is authentic. Of the Grecian colonies which settled on the Western Coast of Asia Minor, the first consisted of the Æolians, to the south of whom settled the Ionians from Attica, and the Dorians established themselves in the Island of Rhodes and in Caria. These settlements were made in the 11th century B. C. Respecting Lydia there is nothing worthy of mention until the time of Crœsus, who will claim our attention hereafter.

SYRIA first rose to importance in the time of Benhadad I. His predecessors were engaged in frequent wars with the people of Israel. About the year 800. B. C., however, Benhadad II. was overcome by Jeroboam II., and rendered tributary to Israel, but under his successor Syria appears to have recovered its independence.

Of commercial nations SIDON and TYRE seem to have been the first that rose to eminence. At a very early period they carried their articles of trade to distant shores; sent out colonies; and made discoveries in navigation, which lost perhaps some of the credit they deserved, in consequence of the extravagant fables which were associated with them. It is mentioned in Scripture that Hiram, king of Tyre, sent architects into Palestine. This is supposed to have been in the early part of the 11th century B. C. The chronology of the succeeding kings is very uncertain. In the reign of Pygmalion, *in the 8th century B. C. Dido, the sister of Pygmalion, is said to have founded Carthage.*

Until near the close of our present period, almost all that is known of GREECE rests upon tradition. For their first knowledge of the arts and sciences the Greeks are said to have been indebted to colonies from Egypt, Phœnicia, and Phrygia. From Egypt they received Danaus who settled in Argos about the middle of the 15th century B. C. and Cecrops, who settled in Attica about half a century afterwards—from Phœnicia they received Cadmus, who founded Thebes, and is supposed to have introduced the use of letters—and from Phrygia went Pelops, from whom the Peloponnesus took its name. The first monarch of Greece whose name appears, is Ogyges, and all that is known of him is, that a deluge occurred during his time. The kingdom of Sicyon is said to have been founded by Inachus, as early as 1850 B. C. and to have been afterwards incorporated with that of Argos. At an early period the celebrated council of Amphictyon was established, consisting of representatives from the several states of Greece. After two unsuccessful attempts the sons of Hercules obtained possession of the Peloponnesus, with the exception of Arcadia, about 80 years after the fall of Troy. The Heraclidean states were, Lacedæmon, Messenia, Argos, Elis, and Corinth. Attica, like the other states of Greece, continued to be governed by kings, among whom Theseus was the most celebrated, until the death of Codrus, which happened about 1068 B. C., when the government was entrusted to magistrates, called Archons, who were chosen for life. After this time Republics were generally established, except in Lacedæmon in which the celebrated lawgiver Lycurgus flourished about the year 890 B. C. In Lacedæmon the throne was occupied by two kings, the descendants of Eurysthenes and Procles, of the race of Hercules. Those who succeeded in the family of Procles were called Proclidæ, and afterwards Eurypontidæ; and those in the family of Eurysthenes, Eurysthenidæ, and afterwards Agidæ. Whether the Ephori, who had a sort of superintendence over the kings, were instituted by Lycurgus, or subsequently, is not certain. The Argonautic expedition is believed to have taken place about 1260 B. C. The names of the victors in the Olympic Games were first registered in 776 B. C.

ITALY had, in ancient times, the names of Hesperia, Ausonia, and Œnotria; the present appellation it seems to have derived from a colony of Ætolians. It appears to have been peopled partly by the Gauls, partly from Asia and Sicily, and partly by colonies from Greece. Evander is said to have established a colony in Latium, about the middle of the 12th century, B. C.; and about a century afterwards other settlements were formed by Greeks, in that part of Italy called from them Græcia Magna. The two nations most distinguished, and indeed the only nations worthy of mention, before the foundation of ROME, are the Hetrurians and the Latins. Of the origin of that city, there is no certain history. The Romans themselves delighted in claiming Æneas, the son of Priam, as the father of their race. Another opinion is, that Rome was founded by a colony from Alba. *The period of its foundation is also disputed, but the generally-received opinion is that that event took place about* 753 *B. C.*, and that Romulus, who is believed to have been the grandson of Numitor, king of Alba, was the first king.

B.C.529. EXHIBITING THE EMPIRE OF CYRUS.

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Engraved by Sidl.ll Hall, Bucs. Str. Blooms.

FOURTH PERIOD.

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF ROME, 753 B. C., TO THE DEATH OF CYRUS, 529 B. C.

(A. M. 3251 to A. M. 3475.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.	EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS
The PERSIAN EMPIRE, embracing			
Persia	Green.	GRECIA	Crimson.
Media		ITALIA	Yellow.
Parthia		CARTHAGO, Sicilia and Sardinia	Dark Blue.
Armenia		EGYPT and Lybia	Lilac.
Asia Minor			
Assyria			
Bactriana			
Syria			

JUDAH and ISRAEL continued to be engaged in wars with each other, and with neighbouring nations, from the time of their separation to our present period; and, in spite of the warnings of prophecy, obstinately offended against God, by their gross idolatry and wickedness, until they were both subdued and made captive. About the year 740, B. C., ISRAEL was invaded by Tiglath Pileser, king of Assyria, who carried away that portion of the inhabitants who dwelled on the Eastern sdie of the River Jordan, and in part of Galilee. And nineteen years afterwards Salmanassar, the son of Tiglath Pileser, by the capture of Samaria, in the reign of Hoshea, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, about 254 years after its establishment as a separate State. Most of the people were transplanted into Assyria and Media, and nearly the whole of those who remained were removed, about 667 B. C., by Esarhaddon, king of Assyria, who sent colonies to inhabit Samaria from various provinces of his Empire. About the year 740 B. C., Ahaz, king of JUDAH became tributary to Tiglath Pileser of Assyria, but his successor Hezekiah, formed an alliance with Sethon, king of Egypt, and made a stand against the Assyrian power under Sennacherib. Manasseh, who began to reign about 697 B. C. was carried captive to Babylon by Esarhaddon king of Assyria and Babylon, about 677 B. C., and after a captivity of five years, he was restored to his throne, and ruled as a vassal of Assyria. Josiah, the next king of Judah, was overcome by Necho, king of Egypt, about 608 B. C.; but Necho having been vanquished by Nebuchadnezzar, son of the king of Babylon, Judah once more fell under the dominion of Assyria, in the reign of Jehoiakim, the successor of Josiah, about the year 605 B. C. From this time the Babylonian captivity of 70 years, is usually calculated. Eight years afterwards Jehoiakim was slain in a battle with an invading army composed of nations subject to the king of Babylon. He was succeeded by his son Jehoiachin, commonly called Jeconias, who, in three months after he ascended the throne, was attacked by Nebuchadnezzar, now king of Babylon, by whom, with his family and a number of others, amongst whom were the Prophets Daniel and Ezekiel, he was sent to Babylon. Nebuchadnezzar then made the uncle of Jehoiachin, king, by the name of Zedekiah. Zedekiah revolted against Nebuchadnezzar, and Jerusalem, after a siege of eighteen months, *was taken by the Babylonians in the year 587 B. C.* Zedekiah, after his eyes had been put out, was carried in chains to Babylon, where he died in prison; the city of Jerusalem was reduced to a heap of ruins, and nearly the whole of the population was sent captive to Babylon. Over those who remained, Gedaliah was made governor, and such of the people as had fled to neighbouring countries were encouraged by him to return. Some of them had taken refuge in Egypt, but the greater part of them were destroyed by order of Nebuchadnezzar, after he defeated Necho. Altogether but a very small body returned, so that *the land lay desolate until about the year 536 B.C.*, when Cyrus, the founder of the great Persian Empire, issued a decree permitting all the Jews to return to their own land, and rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem. The numbers of persons who returned in consequence of this decree, amounted to not quite 50,000.

Of EGYPT, during our present period, little is to be added to what has been already incidentally mentioned. After several monarchs had reigned, a government of twelve kings was established, which lasted from about 671 to 656 B. C., when it was put an end to by Psammetichus, who attained sovereign power. He was succeeded by Necho, about 617 B. C. There is a vague story, that in the reign of this king, who was a promoter of navigation, a Phœnician adventurer doubled the Cape of Good Hope. Necho projected a canal between the Nile and the Red Sea. He was successful in his wars in Palestine and Syria, but was completely defeated at Circesium, by Nebuchadnezzar, about 606 B. C. He was succeeded by Psammis, and Psammis by Apries, who was overthrown by Nebuchadnezzar, and died about 570 B. C. The next king was Amasis, who died about 526.

Phul, the king of ASSYRIA last-mentioned, was succeeded by Tiglath

Pileser, already alluded to, by whom Syria was entirely subdued about 740 B. C. The next king was Salmanassar, who besides annihilating the kingdom of Israel, extended his conquests into Phœnicia. Sennacherib followed, and was succeeded by Esarhaddon, who incorporated the kingdoms of Babylon and Assyria, about 680 B. C. Of the events which followed the reign of Esarhaddon no distinct view is to be obtained. All that can be learned with any certainty is, that in the beginning of the sixth century B. C., Nabopolassar, a Chaldæan, rendered Babylon, and Deiocces, a Mede, rendered Media independent. Phraortes, the successor of Deiocces conquered Persia, and afterwards fell in battle with the Assyrians. Cyaxares, who next became king of Media, united his forces with those of Nabopolassar, and destroyed Nineveh about 606 B. C. Nabopolassar transferred the seat of empire to BABYLON, and henceforth the Babylonian is substituted for the Assyrian empire. Nabopolassar was succeeded by his son Nebuchadnezzar. This prince had already distinguished himself by the defeat of Necho, king of Egypt, who had been encouraged to attack Circesium by an incursion of Scythians into the territories of Cyaxares and Nabopolassar. After a series of conquests, amongst which was that of Judea, as mentioned above, Nebuchadnezzar destroyed Sidon and laid siege to Tyre. That city held out against him for thirteen years, and was at last utterly demolished about 572 B. C. Nebuchadnezzar was succeeded by his son Evil Merodach, who was followed by Neriglissar.

Before stating the overthrow of the Babylonian, and the establishment of the great Persian empire, by Cyrus, it will be proper to mention the state of LYDIA at the time when that conqueror arose. Gyges usurped the throne of Lydia about 718 B. C., having first murdered Candaules. From the time of Gyges, to that of Halyattes, the advance of the Lydian power was checked by the incursions of the Scythians, but by him they were expelled from Asia Minor. It may be mentioned as a remarkable occurrence in the reign of this monarch, that a war which he had been carrying on for six years with Cyaxares the Mede, was put an end to 585 B. C. in consequence of a total eclipse of the sun. The eclipse had been predicted by Thales the philosopher. To Halyattes succeeded the celebrated CRŒSUS. This monarch reduced under his dominion the whole of Asia Minor, to the river Halys, except Lycia and Cilicia, and was no less distinguished by his patronage of learning and philosophy, than he was by his wealth and military triumphs.

The history of CYRUS is so mixed with fiction that the exact truth cannot be extracted. He is believed to have been the grandson of Astyages, the king of Media, and to have been born in PERSIA. His first step towards that mighty empire, which he ultimately established, was the raising of his countrymen to independence, who had hitherto been subject to the Medes. As soon as he was seated on the throne he commenced his career of conquest. His first great victory was over Crœsus, king of Lydia. The battle which was to decide the fate of the rival empires took place at Thymbra, near Sardis, about 548 B. C. The Lydians were entirely defeated, Crœsus was made prisoner, and Sardis was taken by the forces under Cyrus. He then turned his arms against Babylon, where the throne was filled by Nabonadius, who had attained sovereignty by the murder of Laborosoarchod, the successor of Neriglissar. Nabonadius is in Scripture called Belshazzar. Cyrus *succeeded in his attempts upon Babylon* by a stratagem. Having turned the course of the Euphrates, he entered the city by the bed of the river, *and destroyed it to the very foundations*, 538 *B. C.* His empire afterwards extended over all the kingdoms which had been included in the Median, Babylonian, and Lydian empires. The time and manner of his death are doubtful. He is said by some to have carried his army as far as the Jaxartes, and to have fallen in a conflict with the Massagetæ. We have therefore extended our sketch thus far northward. There is however no satisfactory authority that he established his power beyond Bactriana.

The affairs of GREECE and ITALY during this period are unconnected with those of other countries. In Athens, the Archons were first made decennial, then annual. Draco, the lawgiver, celebrated for his severity, flourished about the year 624 B. C., and Solon about 594. The republic was maintained without any material innovation until about the year 560 B. C., when PISISTRATUS, a person of remarkable valour, learning, and ability, attained the sovereignty in spite of the opposition of SOLON. He was forcibly expelled the city, returned and governed it again, and was again expelled. He found means, after an absence of eleven years, to reinstate himself in authority a third time, and remained sovereign of Athens until his death, which took place about 527 B. C. Lacedæmon was, during this period, the leading state of the Peloponnesus. Its principal antagonists were the Messenians. *The first Messenian war* commenced 743 B. C., and after lasting 19 years, ended in the capture of Ithome, by the Lacedæmonians, after a siege of ten years. It is mentioned that Aristodemus, who was of the royal blood, sacrificed his daughter, in order to satisfy an oracle which demanded a royal virgin. A body of Messenians afterwards took refuge in Italy, and founded Rhegium; and a number of the children of the women of Lacedæmon, which were born in the absence of their husbands, emigrated and founded Tarentum. The Messenians again revolted, about 685 B. C., and a war of 14 years followed, which terminated in the taking of the city of Ira, by the Lacedæmonians, after a long siege. A portion of the Messenians repaired to Sicily, where they got possession of Zancle, which was from them called Messena.

ROMULUS, as soon as he had founded ROME and been declared king, began to organize his government. He instituted the Senate, gave civil, religious, and military laws, and divided the people into patricians and plebeians. He increased the number of his people, by affording an asylum to refugees from other nations, and by treating as subjects, instead of slaves, those whom he conquered. One of the memorable events of his reign was the seizing of the Sabine women, at a Roman festival, in honour of the God Consus. A fierce conflict was on the point of commencing, when the women interfered to prevent it; the Sabines consented to join the Romans, and Tatius their king shared the sovereign power with Romulus. Romulus died, or, as some say, was slain by the populace; or, as others pretend, was raised to heaven, about 717 B. C., and was ranked amongst the Gods by the Romans. Numa Pompilius was chosen king after Romulus. He was of a pacific disposition, and applied himself chiefly to the establishment of religious ceremonies. He died 673 B. C. During the reign of Tullus Hostilius, the next king, there were frequent wars between Rome and the neighbouring states. In his reign, the celebrated combat between the three Horatii of Rome, and the three Curiatii of Alba was fought; Alba was subsequently destroyed, and its inhabitants were transplanted to Rome, 665 B. C. He was followed by Ancus Martius 617 B. C., to whom succeeded Tarquinius, called Priscus. He was victorious in his wars with the Latins, the Sabines, and the Hetrurians, increased the number of the Senate, beautified and improved Rome, and laid the foundation of the Capitol. In the 80th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign, he was assassinated by the sons of his predecessor. Servius Tullius succeeded him, pursued a similar course of conduct, and perished by a similar fate. He had married his two daughters to Tarquinius and Arunx, the sons of Tarquinius, the late king. Tullia, the wife of Arunx, in order to unite herself with Tarquinius, murdered her husband; and Tarquinius destroyed his wife. Servius fell by the hand of his son-in-law: and it is related, that his daughter ordered her chariot to be driven over the mangled body of her father. Tarquinius, surnamed from his pride and insolence Superbus, became king 534 B. C.

B.C.323. EXHIBITING THE EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER.

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Engraved by Sidy Hall Bury St. Edmunds.

FIFTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DEATH OF CYRUS, 529 B. C., TO THAT OF ALEXANDER OF MACEDON, 323 B. C.

(A. M. 3475 to A. M. 3681.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
MACEDONIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Macedonia	Crimson.
Grecia	
Thracia	
Asia Minor	
Syria	
Egypt	
Libya	
Cyprus	
With all Asia between Sogdiana and the Persian Gulf, the Euphrates, and the Hydaspes	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
BITHYNIA	Dark Green.
CARTHAGO, SARDINIA, and CORSICA	Dark Blue.
ITALIA	Yellow.

THE present period abounds in matter of importance. The earlier part of it embraces the most striking events of Grecian history, and the latter portion the conquests of Alexander.

In the history of THE JEWS, which, from its being found in Scripture, has hitherto demanded particular attention, there is now little worthy of notice. The successors of Cyrus continued to them the favour which he had shown towards them; and about the year 458 B. C. Ezra was appointed their governor. He applied himself to the correction of the canon of the Holy Writings, to the rebuilding of the temple, and to the restoration of the Mosaic religion. He was succeeded by Nehemiah. Malachi, the last of the prophets, flourished soon afterwards, and with him the Scripture history ends. It was during this period that the descendants of Abraham began to be called *Judæi* or *Jews*, and their country *Judæa*.

CYRUS, the founder of the PERSIAN EMPIRE, was succeeded by his son CAMBYSES, remarkable for his cruelty and violence of disposition. With the aid of the maritime forces of Cyprus and Phœnicia he invaded EGYPT, *and overthrew Psammenitus, the king of that country at Pelusium, about* 526 *B. C. The rest of Egypt submitted,* as well as several neighbouring nations. The Ethiopians, however, treated the threats of Cambyses with contempt, and he made an expedition against them which completely failed. He died in Egypt, 522 B. C. Smerdis usurped the throne after the death of Cambyses. He succeeded for a time in passing for a son of Cyrus, who was in fact murdered by Cambyses, but the imposture having been discovered, he was put to death by the nobles. DARIUS was the next king. The Babylonians having revolted, he took Babylon after a siege of twenty months. He then made a rash and unsuccessful expedition into Scythia, and is said to have rendered part of India tributary to him. The most memorable event of his reign was *the invasion of Greece.* The Ionians having shown an inclination to oppose his power, Darius took measures for their entire subjugation. A contest followed, in which the Ionians, under Aristagoras, were aided by an Athenian fleet. They were ultimately subdued; but the indignation excited in the mind of Darius, by this and other acts of interference on the part of the Greeks, produced important consequences. The conquest of Thrace and Macedon had been already effected; and in 490 B. C. he sent an army of 100,000 men to destroy Athens. *This army was utterly defeated on the plains of MARATHON,* about ten leagues from Athens, by a body of Athenians and Platæans, under the command of MILTIADES. During the rest of his reign, Darius was engaged in preparing for the invasion of Greece, and collected immense forces for that purpose. XERXES, who succeeded him, 485 B. C., *carried his design into execution five years afterwards,* 480 *B. C.;* when he had collected armies, amounting, if some historians are to be believed, to above two millions six hundred thousand fighting men; and, reckoning the women, servants, eunuchs, suttlers, and other followers of the camp, to at least five millions. This multitude, we are told, passed the Hellespont, on a bridge of boats. His fleet is said to have consisted of 13,000 ships of war, and 3,000 transport vessels. The only leading states of Greece which refused to submit on the approach of Xerxes, were ATHENS and LACEDÆMON. The Persian monarch, with the choice part of his troops, advanced without interruption until he reached THERMOPYLÆ, a narrow pass on the sea-coast, leading from Thessaly into Locris and Phocis. It is related, that at this pass the Persian forces

were stopped for three days, by a band of 300 Spartans, under LEONIDAS, the king of Lacedæmon, who were at last overcome, only by means of treachery. More credible accounts state the number of the Greeks to have been four thousand. The Persians now overran Bœotia and Attica, and took possession of Athens, which had been forsaken by its inhabitants. In the mean-time the Grecian fleet had been collected in the Straits of SALAMIS, commanded by THEMISTOCLES. The Persians anchored off Athens, and after some skirmishing, a general engagement taking place in those narrow seas, *the Greeks, although very inferior in number, gained a decisive victory.* Xerxes, fearing that his escape by the Hellespont might be cut off, immediately commenced his retreat, with part of his forces, leaving Mardonius with a large force to continue the war. Mardonius, after having burned Athens and ravaged Attica, *was defeated near Plataea, 479 B. C., by the united forces of the Greeks, under Pausanias, king of Lacedæmon, and Aristides, the Athenian.* Of his army, only 40,000 returned to the Persian dominions. On the very day of this defeat of Mardonius the Greeks gained another great victory over the Persians, at the promontory of Mycale, in Asia Minor; and nine years afterwards the Persians were again beaten, both by land and sea, by the Athenians, under CIMON, near the river Eurymedon, in Pamphylia. Xerxes was murdered by Artabanus, 465 B. C. After a contest with his brother, Hystaspes, Artaxerxes the First became king. He was successful in suppressing revolts in Egypt and other provinces of his empire, but failed in his conflicts with the Greeks. During the latter part of his reign no active hostilities were carried on against Greece. He died 425 B. C. His son, Xerxes, was murdered by Sogdianus, who suffered a similar fate in a few months afterwards; and Darius the Second, surnamed Nothus, became king 424 B. C. His reign presented nothing remarkable but insurrections in different parts of his vast empire. The most successful of these insurrections was in Egypt. Amyrtæus, the king of that country long struggled against the Persian power, and it was not entirely reduced to subjection until about 350 B. C. The Egyptians had been assisted throughout by Greek mercenaries, and their final overthrow was chiefly attributable to the desertion of their king Tachos by Agesilaus of Lacedæmon, who supported a rebellion raised by Nectanebus. Darius died 404 B. C., and was succeeded by his son ARTAXERXES II. Artaxerxes was no sooner seated on the throne than his brother CYRUS, who had the government of the Persian provinces of Asia Minor, prepared to revolt against him. He was ultimately defeated and slain at Cunaxa, 401 B. C. This conflict became celebrated from its having been followed by the retreat of the 10,000 Greeks related by Xenophon. For several years Artaxerxes was engaged in a war with the Lacedæmonians, and the contest was maintained with great vigor in Asia Minor, by the skill and activity of Agesilaus; but after he had been recalled to Greece the Persians were so successful that about 387 B. C. their antagonists were compelled to make a treaty on disadvantageous terms. Artaxerxes died and was succeeded by his son of the same name, 358 B. C.

The successes of THE GREEKS against foreign enemies were followed by wars amongst themselves. PISISTRATUS was succeeded in the sovereignty of ATHENS by his sons Hippias and Hipparchus, about 514 B. C. Hipparchus was killed by Harmodius and Aristogiton, and Hippias was expelled, and the Republic restored about 510 B. C. For about 40 years PERICLES had the chief influence in the Athenian republic, and during no small portion of that time he governed it by means of eloquence and management, with an almost absolute authority. This period was remarkable for the flourishing state of the arts, science, and literature. The most memorable occurrence was the PELOPONNESIAN WAR. The real origin of this war was the jealousy which prevailed between Athens and Lacedæmon. This hostile feeling had recently been heightened by some differences which had arisen between the Lacedæmonians and the Athenians, who had co-operated with them against the Messenians; and this third war ending, like the two former, in the defeat of the Messenians, the Athenians gave a settlement to the remnant of them at Naupactus, 455 B. C. The immediate cause was a quarrel between the people of Corinth and the Corcyreans, one of their colonies. The Lacedæmonians supported the Corinthians; the Athenians the Corcyreans; and the other states of Greece ranged themselves on one side or the other. Archidamus, king of Lacedæmon, entered and ravaged Attica, 431 B. C., and the Athenians were further harassed by a plague which destroyed a large proportion of their population. Amongst those who perished was Pericles, about 429 B. C. The war was continued with only occasional intermissions, and without any success or misfortune on either side, of a nature to produce an important result, until the Athenians were induced by ALCIBIADES to send an expedition against Syracuse, a city of Sicily, which had risen to considerable power, and aspired to dominion over the neighbouring states. The Athenian fleet and army sent to Syracuse were entirely destroyed 413 B. C. Notwithstanding this severe blow, the Athenians, commanded by Alcibiades, soon afterwards gained a naval victory over the Lacedæmonians, and although every person of merit in the public service was in danger from the unbridled insolence, and unprincipled ingratitude of the populace, further successes attended the arms of Athens *until* 405 *B. C., when the Athenians were totally defeated at Ægospotamos, their fleet annihilated, and their troops put to the sword by the Lacedæmonians and their allies, commanded by* LYSANDER. Athens was soon afterwards taken, the democracy destroyed, and a government of thirty tyrants established. These were speedily expelled by Thrasybulus, and the ancient constitution was restored. LACEDÆMON was now the ruling state. Athens, Thebes, Argos, and Corinth formed an alliance against it, but Agesilaus defeated their united forces at Coronea. The Lacedæmonians seized upon Thebes, 382 B. C. but in four years afterwards it was freed from their yoke by Pelopidas, and after various unimportant engagements *the Lacedæmonians were completely overthrown by the Thebans, under* EPAMINONDAS *at Leuctra, and at Mantinea.* In the battle of Mantinea Epaminondas fell, 363 B. C.

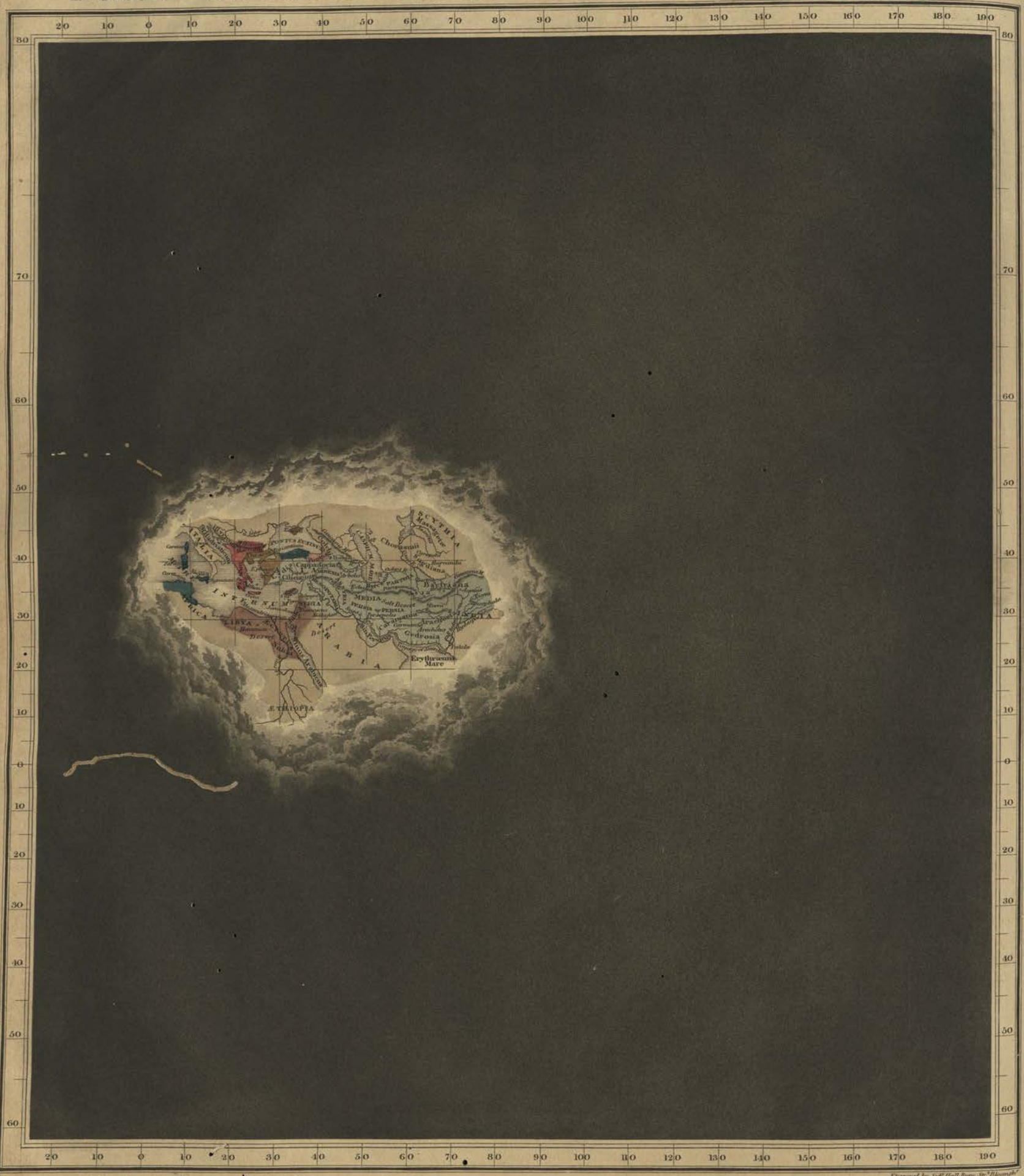
The distracted state of Greece afforded a favourable opportunity for an attempt to subvert its independence, and a formidable enemy soon appeared in the person of PHILIP, KING OF MACEDON. That kingdom, which has hitherto deserved no particular mention, was founded about 800 B. C., by Caranus, one of the Heraclidæ. It subsequently fell under the dominion of Persia, afterwards became free, interfered at times in the affairs of the Greeks, and was frequently distracted by civil wars. Philip became king about 359 B. C. He was victorious in conflicts with the Thracians and Illyrians, and added to his dominions the city of Amphipolis, an Athenian colony. His progress was hastened and rendered easy by bribery and intrigue, no less than by military skill and valour. He laid siege to Olynthus 347 B. C., and although the Athenians, urged by Demosthenes, sent forces to its aid, no effectual resistance was made, and it fell into the hands of Philip. Never failing to take advantage of the dissensions amongst the nations of Greece, he continued to extend his power until his successes were crowned by a *complete victory over the Thebans and Athenians at Chæronea, 338 B. C.* Philip was then appointed commander of all the Greeks, in a projected expedition against the Persians, but was murdered, 336 B. C. He was succeeded by his son ALEXANDER, called the Great. The accession of Alexander to the throne was speedily followed by the conquest of Thrace and Illyricum, the suppression of attempts on the part of the Greeks to dispute his authority, the destruction of Thebes,

and his appointment to the same command which his father had held. Having established tranquillity in Greece, and left Antipater, one of his generals, as viceroy, *he commenced his expedition against the Persians,* 334 *B. C.* DARIUS the Third, surnamed Codomanus, being then monarch of Persia. The Macedonian army, consisting of about 35,000 men, landed in Asia Minor without opposition. *The first battle took place on the banks of the* GRANICUS, in Bithynia, when the Persians were defeated with immense loss, while that sustained by their antagonists was inconsiderable. Alexander now rapidly over-ran all the provinces west of the river Halys, restored the Grecian states to liberty, and pursued a career of success which was not checked by any powerful opposition, until he arrived at ISSUS in Cilicia. *Here he once more triumphed over the Persians.* They were defeated with great slaughter, and Darius, who commanded in person, sought safety in flight, 333 B.C. Syria and Phœnicia, with the exception of Tyre, immediately submitted to his victorious arms. The Tyrians obstinately resisted, and their city was not taken until after a siege of seven months. Alexander now directed his march towards Egypt. The only delay he experienced, arose from the firmness with which Gaza in Palestine was defended. To the Jews he allowed the same privileges which had been granted to them by the Persian monarchs. On his arrival in Memphis, he was acknowledged sovereign of Egypt; and founded the city of Alexandria, to perpetuate his name. Having learned that Darius had collected a numerous army in Assyria, he hastened to meet him; and *another battle was fought near the town of* ARBELA, 331 B. C. Here again, Alexander triumphed, and Darius once more fled. He was pursued into Media, and was there murdered by Bessus, one of his generals. Alexander, after conquering Media and Persia, crossed the Parapomissus, and advanced with uninterrupted success through Hyrcania, Parthia, Bactria and Sogdiana; and having passed the Jaxartes, which has been improperly confounded with the Tanais, he gave battle to the Scythians, and defeated them. During the absence of Alexander, the generals whom he had left in the command of a part of his army, were successful in overcoming the remnant of the Persian forces. Elated by his triumphs, Alexander next resolved on an expedition against India. His usual good fortune attended him, and after defeating several warlike nations, he arrived at the Hydaspes, one of the most eastern of those streams, whose confluence forms the Indus. Here he was encountered by Porus, a warlike monarch of the country, whom he defeated after a severe conflict. To celebrate this victory he caused two cities to be founded, one called Nicea, from the Greek word *nike,* the other, Bucephala, from the name of his horse Bucephalus, which died there. After some further successes, amongst which was the taking of the city of Sangala, he proposed to pass the Hydaspes. His army, however, refused to proceed further eastward, and he prepared to return, by passing down the Indus to the ocean. In the course of his passage, he engaged in conflicts with some of the nations dwelling near the banks of the Indus, and narrowly escaped death, in the storming of one of their capitals. Learning that symptoms of disobedience to his sway had manifested themselves in some of the central provinces of his empire, he marched through Gedrosia, Carmania, and Persis, to Susa; his fleet being conducted by Nearchus to the Euphrates. He passed some months in effecting improvements, and projecting new schemes of conquest, and *expired at Babylon,* 323 *B. C. in the 32nd year of his age.* His death has been attributed to that indulgence in intemperance, which had before incited him to various acts of extravagance, amongst which was the murder at Marcanda, of Clytus, who had saved his life, and the setting fire to Persepolis, with his own hand. During the absence of Alexander, the only important disturbance of the tranquillity of GREECE, arose from a revolt of the Lacedæmonians, and some confederate states, but they were overthrown by Antipater, 331 B. C.

At ROME, a great change took place, 509 B.C. The son of Tarquinius having committed a rape upon Lucretia, a noble Roman matron, the tyrant was expelled by the people, who were led on by JUNIUS BRUTUS, *the form of government was changed, and two consuls were thenceforward annually elected.* Of these magistrates, the first appointed, were Junius Brutus and Collatinus. Porsenna, king of Etruria made an attempt to restore Tarquin, but after carrying on a successful warfare, he abandoned his enterprize on witnessing the heroism of his antagonists, and especially of Cocles and Mutius Scævola. Violent struggles followed between the Patricians and the Plebeians. A Dictator, a magistrate with sovereign power, was occasionally appointed, and on the other hand, the influence of the populace was greatly increased by the election of Tribunes. *The first Dictator was appointed* 498 *B. C., and Tribunes were first elected,* 493 *B. C.* One of the most memorable effects of the discontents of the people, was the banishment of CORIOLANUS, who placing himself at the head of the Volsci, reduced the Romans to a very dangerous situation, and at last spared them only on the intercession of his mother and his wife. The Romans, notwithstanding their internal discord, continued to flourish under the authority of Consuls, except during a short time, when a Decemvirate was appointed, without the occurrence of any remarkable event, *until* 390 *B. C. when their city was burned by the Gauls, under Brennus.* It was afterwards rebuilt in a more splendid and substantial manner; the prosperity and stability of Rome increased; an equality of rights was established between the Patricians and Plebeians; and the Latins and Campanians who had been formidable antagonists to the Romans, were subdued 338 B. C. An attempt of Alexander, king of Epirus to make conquests in Lower Italy, proved unsuccessful, and he fell in battle with the Lucanians, 326 B. C. The only considerable check the Roman arms sustained was from the Samnites at Caudium, 321 B. C., but this had no permanent effect on their progress.

CARTHAGE during the present period appears to have enjoyed the advantages of a settled system of municipal polity. The Carthaginians early distinguished themselves, by their enterprizing spirit in commerce, and by their courage in war. The principal scene of their active interference in European affairs up to this time was Sicily. That island was agitated by frequent internal contests. Syracuse was its chief state. About 339 B. C., TIMOLEON defeated the Carthaginians, deposed the tyrants who then reigned, and gave liberty to the whole island.

B.C.301. EXHIBITING THE PARTITION OF THE EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER.



London, Published June 1828, by Seeley & Burnside, 169 Fleet Street.

Engraved by Sidt Hall, Bury St. Edmunds

SIXTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER OF MACEDON, 323 B. C., TO THE PARTITION OF HIS EMPIRE, 301 B. C.

(A. M. 3681 to A. M. 3703.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
MACEDONIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Macedonia	Crimson.
Grecia	
EGYPTIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Egypt	Lilac.
Libya	
Part of Arabia	
Cœle-Syria	
Judæa	
Cyprus	
THRACIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Thracia and the Chersonesus	Light Brown.
Part of Asia Minor	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
SYRIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Part of Syria	Blue.
Armenia	
Part of Asia Minor	
All Asia to the south of Sogdiana, and as far to the east as the Hydaspes	
BITHYNIA	Dark Green.
PONTUS	Orange.
ITALIA	Yellow.
CARTHAGO, Mauretania, Corsica, and Sardinia.	Dark Blue.

AFTER the death of Alexander, his brother Aridæus was raised to the throne, and a son of Alexander was associated with him. They were kings, however, only in name. The real strength of the monarchy was in the hands of those generals who had been most eminent under Alexander. These ambitious commanders thus divided the empire.—ANTIPATER had the command of the army in the European provinces; of which CRATERUS was declared the protector; PERDICCAS became general of the household troops; PTOLEMY had Egypt, Lybia, and that part of Arabia which borders upon Egypt; to LYSIMACHUS fell Thrace and the Chersonese; EUMENES had Paphlagonia and Cappadocia; ANTIGONUS, Phrygia the Greater, Lycia and Pamphylia; and SELEUCUS was appointed commander of the royal cavalry. Encouraged by the death of Alexander, the Athenians, in confederacy with some other Greek states, resolved to oppose the Macedonian power. After several conflicts they were defeated by Antipater, near Cranon, in Thessaly, and Athens was completely subjugated. Perdiccas having taken the title of Regent, and shown in other acts an intention to usurp the supreme power, Antipater, Antigonus, Ptolemy and Craterus, united against him. He was supported by Eumenes. After many sanguinary engagements Perdiccas was slain by his own troops. Craterus soon afterwards fell in battle with Eumenes. About 321 B. C. a new partition of the empire took place, Lysimachus retained Thrace; Antipater obtained Greece and Macedonia; Antigonus, with his son Demetrius, the greater part of Asia Minor; Ptolemy Lagus continued to hold Egypt; and Seleucus obtained Babylon. Antipater died in 318 B. C., and Polyperchon, one of the friends of Alexander, succeeded him as governor of Macedonia. He was opposed by Cassander, the son of Antipater, to whose aid troops were sent from Asia by Antigonus. The Greeks, who had hitherto received nothing but oppression and contempt from their Macedonian conquerors, were roused to partial attempts at resistance by the cruelties of Polyperchon. He was checked in his progress by the people of Megalopolis, and failed in his efforts to expel Cassander, who had established himself in Attica. Cassander subsequently overcame his antagonists, and confirmed his authority throughout Macedonia and Greece. In the mean while Antigonus was endeavouring to extend his dominion over the whole of Asia. His chief opponent was Eumenes, who was appointed general for the Macedonian kings, but this able commander fell into his hands, and was put to death about 315 B. C. Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Seleucus now entered into a confederacy to secure themselves against the ambitious projects of Antigonus and his son Demetrius. Antigonus immediately commenced hostilities against them by invading Syria and Phœnicia. Demetrius, who commanded the army of Antigonus, was defeated, but Antigonus arriving with reinforcements, overcame the forces of Ptolemy, and compelled him to retreat into Egypt. Seleucus finally established himself in Babylon, 312 B. C. In spite of the strength of the combination formed against them, Antigonus and Demetrius sustained the war with great vigour, and 306 B. C., Demetrius appeared with a powerful fleet before Athens, which was still under a governor appointed by Cassander. He afterwards took the Island of Rhodes, became

master of all Greece from the Straits of Thermopylæ to the Isthmus of Corinth, and of some cities in the Peloponnesus, and was appointed commander in chief of the Grecian forces. Having achieved this conquest, Demetrius joined Antigonus in Asia, to oppose the combined forces of Seleucus, Lysimachus, Ptolemy, and Cassander. A battle was fought near Ipsus, in Phrygia, 301 B. C., in which Antigonus was killed, and his army entirely defeated. His possessions fell into the hands of his conquerors, and were divided between Seleucus and Lysimachus. *The partition was now as follows:—Egypt, Lybia, Arabia, and Cœle-Syria were allotted to Ptolemy, who soon afterwards added Judæa to his possessions; Macedonia and Greece to Cassander; Thrace, and the Asiatic Provinces bordering on the Hellespont and Bosphorus, to Lysimachus; and the remaining territories in Asia fell under the power of Seleucus, and were called the Empire of Syria.*

B.C. 146. AT THE END OF THE THIRD PUNIC WAR.

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Engraved by Sidf. Hall, Bury St. Edmunds

SEVENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE PARTITION OF ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE, 301 B. C., TO THE END OF THE THIRD PUNIC WAR, 146 B. C.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
ROMAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Italia and Islands	Yellow.
Africa Propria	
Hispania, except Lusitania	
Grecia	
Macedonia	
Part of Asia Minor	
Armenia (dependent)	
SYRIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Syria, and part of Asia Minor	Blue.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
PARTHIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
The countries from the Euphrates to the Indus, and from Sogdiana to the Persian Gulf	Green.
BITHYNIA	Dark Green.
PONTUS	Orange.
JUDÆA	Red.
HINDOOSTAN	Grey.
CHINA	Light Brown.

A FEW years after this partition, Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, taking advantage of internal dissensions which followed the death of Cassander, who died 296 B. C., seated himself on the throne of Macedonia. He soon afterwards made an attempt to recover his father's empire in Asia, but he was opposed by Seleucus, Ptolemy, and Lysimachus, and taken prisoner and consigned to captivity, after a contest which lasted two years. A dispute afterwards arose between Seleucus and Lysimachus, and Lysimachus was slain in battle. Seleucus did not long survive his victory. He was assassinated by Ptolemy Ceraunus, son of Ptolemy the First of Egypt, 280 B. C. *He was the last of Alexander's great commanders,* Ptolemy having died two or three years before. Seleucus was succeeded by his son ANTIOCHUS, surnamed Soter, one of whose first actions was an attempt to subdue Bithynia, which had maintained its independence for 48 years. His army was completely defeated. This event is chiefly memorable from its having caused *the first introduction of the Gauls into Asia Minor,* of which authentic history makes mention. Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, called in a body of that people to his aid against his brother, who disputed his right to the throne, and rewarded them with a neighbouring portion of Asia Minor, which was first called Gallo-Græcia, and afterwards permanently GALATIA. About the same time also the kingdom of PERGAMUS was established by Philetærus, a general, formerly in the service of Antigonus. Now also PONTUS and CAPPADOCIA became independent. Frequent contests arose between the Syrian and Egyptian empires during the reigns of Antiochus the First and Second, in the course of which Egypt acquired Cilicia, and other provinces. But the most important separation from the empire of Syria was that of PARTHIA. It became independent about 256 B. C., under ARSACES, a name which afterwards became the general designation of its kings. Antiochus the Second was followed by two monarchs of the name of Seleucus, the latter of whom fell in battle with Attalus, king of Pergamus, and was succeeded by ANTIOCHUS the Third, surnamed the Great, 224 B. C. He recovered Media Atropatene from the Parthians, who had seized on it, but left them in possession of Hyrcania, and recognized the independence of Bactria. On the death of Ptolemy the Fourth, 204 B. C., he formed a league with Philip the Fifth, of Macedonia, in order to seize upon and make division between them of the Egyptian territories. In his first battle with the Egyptians, he was victorious; but Philip, his ally, was defeated by the Romans, and many Greek cities which Antiochus had seized upon, applied to that people for aid. Ambassadors were immediately sent to Antiochus; their demands were in substance a requisition that he would give up all his ambitious designs. At the time of the arrival of this embassy, he was pursuing his career of conquest in Thrace, and had left forces employed in the subjugation of the Greek cities in Asia Minor. After some time passed in preparation, on both sides, he commenced the war in Greece, where he sustained a defeat at Thermopylæ. By sea he was equally unsuccessful, and finally, *his army being completely routed near Magnesia in Asia Minor, by L. Scipio,* 190 *B. C.,* he submitted to the terms prescribed by his conquerors, evacuated all his territories in Asia Minor, to the north of Taurus, which were given to Eumenes, and undertook to pay a large sum of money. The Greek states of Asia Minor, which had been under subjection to the Syrians and Egyptians, were declared free by the Romans. Antiochus died 187 B. C., and was succeeded by Seleucus Philopater. The succeeding monarchs were Seleucus the Fourth, and Antiochus the Fourth. *In the reign of the latter, the Jews threw off the Syrian yoke,* which under Antiochus had been extremely oppressive; and the

Syrians were obliged by the Romans to retire from Egypt, of a great part of which they had obtained possession, in consequence of the internal dissensions, by which that country was distracted. Antiochus was succeeded by another king of the same name, whose successor was Demetrius the First. This monarch having incurred the hostility of the Romans, and of their allies in Asia Minor, a rival pretender to his throne was raised up in the person of a Rhodian youth, of the name of Bala. Demetrius fell in battle, and Bala was placed on the throne with the name of Alexander, 151 B. C. He was slain in battle a few years afterwards, and succeeded by a son of Demetrius. During the reign of the first Demetrius, Mesopotamia, Babylon, and Assyria were wrested from the Syrian sway, by MITHRIDATES the First, of Parthia, who effected the conquest of all Asia between the Euphrates and the Indus. The great extent and power of the Empire founded by Seleucus, required the attention which has been given to it above, in order to show its decline and diminution.

Of the countries of ASIA MINOR, there is nothing of moment to be added to what has been said. At the close of the present period, the kings of PONTUS and PERGAMUS were in alliance with Rome; and GALATIA was under Roman influence, although having its own kings: CAPPADOCIA, also, was in alliance with Rome.

In EGYPT, Ptolemy the first, to whom, as has been already mentioned, Egypt and some neighbouring countries were allotted in the partition of the territories of Alexander, greatly promoted the wealth and civilization of his subjects. *In his reign the Septuagint version of the Old Testament was made by some Jewish captives, and the celebrated Alexandrian library was founded; he died* 283 *B. C.* The next king was Ptolemy the Second, celebrated for his promotion of learning. His successor, Ptolemy the Third, further advanced the prosperity and power of Egypt, but after his death, 221 B. C., it rapidly declined. After suffering much from wars with Syria, in the reigns of Ptolemy the Fourth and Fifth, Egypt sustained yet greater injury from a dispute for the sovereignty between the two succeeding kings of that name, known by the surnames of Philometor and Physcon. The Senate of Rome, having been called in to arbitrate between these brothers, decided that Philometor should possess Egypt and Cyprus, and Physcon, Lybia and Cyrene. They afterwards altered their determination and gave Cyprus to Physcon. This was resisted by Philometor, who defeated Physcon and took him prisoner; but notwithstanding many atrocious crimes of which he had been guilty, gave him liberty, and surrendered to him so large a proportion of his territory, that even the Roman Senate found no further pretence for interfering. Philometor died 147 B. C.

From 197 to 168 B. C., THE JEWS were subject to Syria. Various acts of tyranny under Antiochus the Fourth, carried to the highest pitch by the destruction of Jerusalem, having roused them to action, they acquired their liberty under the guidance of JUDAS MACCABÆUS, and entered into an alliance with Rome.

MACEDONIA, after the death of Lysimachus, was for a short time occupied by the Gauls, who were overcome by Antigonus Gonatas, about 278 B. C. In that year, the same people, under Brennus, made an unsuccessful attack on the temple of Delphi.

The principal feature of the history of GREECE at this time, is the contest between *the Achæan and Ætolian leagues*, which caused the introduction of the Romans, and ended in the destruction of Grecian independence. The confederacy of the cities of Achæa was of ancient formation; but like other parts of Greece, they had fallen under Macedonian influence. The league was strengthened, and the spirit of liberty excited by ARATUS, who gave liberty to Corinth, the citadel of which was held by the Macedonians, and became the leader of the Achæans. Athens, which had been hitherto under the yoke of Macedonia, joined the league, 232 B. C. In Sparta, Agis made an unsuccessful attempt to restore the ancient discipline, but this was in a great measure accomplished by Cleomenes, 226 B. C. After a war, the details of which have derived interest, from the talent with which they have been described, rather than from any intrinsic importance, Cleomenes and the Ætolians were beaten, and he was constrained to seek safety by a flight into Egypt, 222 B. C. The war was afterwards renewed. Philip the Fifth of Macedon, became the ally of the Achæans, and the aid of the Romans was invoked by their antagonists. Success attended the arms of Philip in several engagements, and PHILOPŒMEN having taken the command of the troops of the Achæan league, the adverse army was totally defeated, and Machaonidas king of Lacedæmon, was slain. A peace was concluded between Philip and the Romans, 206 B. C., but it was of short duration. Philip having attacked Athens, the Romans sent an army to oppose him, and the Achæans joined them. *A battle between the Romans and the forces of Philip took place at Cynoscephalæ,* 197 *B. C. in which the Romans under Flaminius were victorious.* The Ætolians were afterwards assisted against the Romans by Antiochus the Third, king of Syria, but without success, as has been already mentioned; and *the Ætolian league was dissolved,* 189 *B. C.* Nabis, the ruler of Lacedæmon, having once more provoked the hostility of the Achæans, Philopœmen attacked and *took Sparta, and abolished the laws of Lycurgus,* 188 *B. C.* A war, marked by no events of importance, was renewed at intervals until the death of Philip of Macedon, 178 B. C. He was succeeded by PERSEUS, whose accession to the throne was almost immediately followed by a war with Rome. In this war, the Achæans sided with the Romans. *Perseus was defeated at Pydna,* 168 B. *C., by Paulus Emilius, and taken captive to Rome,* where he was led in triumph. Macedonia was left in the enjoyment of nominal independence, under the protection of Rome. The Achæans now engaged with the Corinthians and Bœotians in a confederacy against the Romans. They were twice defeated; and, *in* 146 *B. C., Corinth was taken by Mummius, the Roman Consul;* the walls were demolished, and the city was reduced to ashes. Thus Corinth perished, and with it fell the independence of *Greece, which henceforth became a Roman province. In about four years afterwards Macedonia shared the same fate;* the pretenders to the crown in that country having been successively overcome by the Roman power.

Much of the history of ROME, during the present period, has necessarily been mixed up in the preceding narrative. In Italy the Romans continued their victorious career without any material check, until about 280 B. C., when Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a warlike prince, who had previously distinguished himself in Greece, and in an attempt to obtain the crown of Macedon, was invited to Italy to assist the Tarentines. He defeated the Romans in two engagements, but was afterwards worsted, and left them in possession of the field. The Romans soon afterwards subdued the Tarentines, and became masters of the whole of Italy. A new object of ambition soon presented itself to them. The CARTHAGINIANS had now become opulent and powerful, and the Romans determined to oppose them. They defeated them in Sicily, took from them Melita and Lipara, and then resolved to carry the war into Africa. They had at first great difficulties to contend with, in consequence of their want of skill and experience in naval affairs; but these their valour and resolution overcame. Their troops having landed on the Carthaginian territory, under Regulus, made rapid advances, but they were afterwards completely defeated, and Regulus was taken prisoner, 255 B. C. Notwithstanding this disaster, and the loss of two fleets, through storms, the Romans refused all proposals for peace, and gained important victories by sea. At length *a treaty was agreed to about* 241 *B. C., and thus ended*

the first Punic War. The Carthaginians lost by this war the footing they had gained in Sicily and Sardinia. In Spain, the coasts of which only had hitherto been known to the Phœnicians and other trading nations, they made considerable conquests. *Upper Italy, inhabited by Gauls, became a Roman Province 222 B. C., under the name of Gallia Cisalpina.* —THE SECOND PUNIC WAR *commenced* 218 *B. C.* The immediate cause of the breaking out of hostilities was the attack of the Carthaginians on Saguntum, in Spain. In the year above mentioned, HANNIBAL, the Carthaginian commander, marched a numerous army over the Alps into Italy. He defeated the Romans in Cisalpine Gaul, overthrew them with great slaughter *at the Lake of Thrasymene, 217 B. C., and in the following year gained the great victory of Cannæ,* which threatened the destruction of the Roman power. *Hannibal, however, wintered at Capua,* and the Romans recruited their shattered forces. A turn of fortune took place. Reinforcements, sent to Hannibal from Carthage, were cut off; and the Romans were so successful, that they were enabled to send troops to Greece, where they engaged in a war in support of the Ætolians, against Philip, king of Macedon; and to Sicily, where Syracuse, after an obstinate resistance, was taken by Marcellus, 212 B. C., and the Island reduced to a Roman Province. In Spain, their affairs which had been in a declining state became prosperous, under the Proconsulship of SCIPIO AFRICANUS; and they determined on carrying the war to the very walls of Carthage. For this purpose Scipio landed with a powerful army, supported by an alliance with Massinissa, king of Numidia. He defeated the Carthaginians; and Hannibal, who had maintained his ground in Italy, in spite of every difficulty, was recalled. *The contending armies met on the plains of Zama, 202 B. C., and after a sanguinary conflict, the Carthaginians were totally defeated.* They then submitted to the terms of peace prescribed by the conquerors, which were such as to reduce them to the condition of a mere tributary state. Although the Carthaginians were thus depressed, their spirit and resources were not utterly destroyed. Carthage again became sufficiently powerful to excite the jealousy of the Romans, and *in* 146 *B. C. it was burned and razed to its very foundations.*

Hitherto we have not thought it necessary to speak of INDIA and CHINA. According to the best authorities, the dawn of their authentic history is not to be dated much farther back than about the commencement of our present period. So indistinct were the notions of the ancients, that it is not at all clear to what countries the names used by them applied. This alone would be a sufficient reason against their introduction here; but there is the further reason, that even those names were not in use until a much later period than the present. In order, therefore, to avoid confusion, we have inserted the appellations which modern discovery has introduced. This will be the more convenient, as no events of ancient history are associated with any parts beyond those explored by Alexander and Seleucus, and to those the Roman designations are given. We may remark here, that the names found in the early history of India and China are the same, or nearly the same, as those which exist at the present day.

Except a great war, called the war of the Mahabharat, about 1390 B. C., and the invasions of Darius Hystaspes, Alexander, and Seleucus, we have no direct and certain information of any occurrences in the history of INDIA, up to the commencement of this period. The expedition of Sesostris has more the air of fiction than of truth. The country was probably peopled very early; but the chronology of the Brahmins is obviously too much mixed with fable to be relied on. At the commencement of its authentic history, it was divided into small kingdoms, the most powerful of which generally rendered the others tributary.

The CHINESE have laid claim to an antiquity which goes back far beyond the creation, but unfortunately for their pretensions, it happens that one of their most celebrated princes, who flourished about 246 B. C. destroyed all the annals of the empire; and whatever has been made up since is of too doubtful authority to obtain credit. Even the time at which their celebrated lawgiver and philosopher CONFUCIUS lived is uncertain, some naming 550, and others 200 B. C. It was not until about 213 B. C. that the various tribes were united under one empire, which was speedily dismembered, and again established, in about 13 years afterwards. About the same time *the great wall* between China and Tartary was completed.

A.D. 1. THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE AUGUSTAN AGE.

GERMANIA
Alani
Chorasmii
SCYTHIA VEL TARTARIA
Caspium Mare
Euxinus Pontus
MOESIA
Thracia
PANNONIA
ILLYRICUM
ITALIA
HISPANIA
RHAETIA
MARE TYRRHENUM
SYRIA
Damascus
Palmyra
Babylon
Seleucia
Ctesiphon
ARABIA
Desert
Arabicus Sinus
Rubrum Mare
AFRICA
LIBYA
Desert
ETHIOPIA
Delta
HINDOSTAN
Ganges
Indus
Barygaza
DECCAN
Malabar
Coromandel
Ceylon
Sinae
Sera
Shandigee
Sachium
Kocitchoo
Fouchien
Cochin China
Cambodia
Siam
Pegu
Ava
Tibet
Kamul
Cashgar
Khoten
Yarkand
Samarcand
Bactria
Parthia
Hyrcanian Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Lake Baikal
Lake Zaisan
Lake Balkash
Lake Issikul
Lake Lop
Lake Kokonor
Lake Tengri
Lake Palti
Lake Yamdok
Lake Manasarowar
Lake Rakas
Lake Chamo
Lake Dembea
Lake Tzana
Lake Aksum
Lake Mareotis
Lake Moeris
Lake Tritonis
Lake Libya
Lake Nubia
Lake Zaire
Lake Zembre
Lake Maravi
Lake Zaflan

EIGHTH PERIOD.

FROM THE END OF THE THIRD PUNIC WAR, 146 B. C., TO THE BIRTH OF CHRIST.

(A. M. 3853 TO A. M. 4004.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
ROMAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Italia and Islands	Yellow.
Hispania	
Africa, Numidia, Mauretania	
Grecia	
Macedonia	
Part of Asia Minor	
Syria	
Bosporus	
Egypt, Lybia and Cyprus	
Gallia	
Illyricum, Pannonia, Noricum, and Rhætia	
Germania, to the Rhine	
Thracia (dependent)	
Armenia (dependent)	
Part of Asia Minor (dependent)	
Judæa (dependent)	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	
PARTHIAN Empire, embracing The countries from the Euphrates to the Indus, and from Sogdiana to the Persian Gulf.	Green.
HINDOOSTAN	Grey.
CHINA	Light Brown.

THERE is a striking contrast, during the present period, between the domestic and foreign affairs of ROME. The former presents a succession of seditions and civil wars, the latter a series of conquests and triumphs. To make our brief summary intelligible it may be better to take each separately.

In SPAIN, although that country had been subjugated, the Roman authority was opposed with great vigour and perseverance, first by VIRIATHUS, a Lusitanian, who for several years maintained his ground, until about 140 B. C.; and next by SERTORIUS, a Roman, who successfully resisted all the armies sent against him from about the year 80 until 73 B. C. Both these commanders were assassinated by their own followers.

IN AFRICA, JUGURTHA, king of Numidia, after a war which had been lengthened more by his intrigues than by his valour, was finally overcome by MARIUS and SYLLA, 106 B. C., and Numidia and Mauretania became Roman provinces before the end of the present period.

GAUL, of which the principal races of inhabitants were called the Belgæ, the Celtæ, and the Aquitani, after a war of several years and innumerable conflicts, as well with the neighbouring people of Germany as with the inhabitants,—was conquered by JULIUS CÆSAR, who also invaded BRITAIN, but returned without attempting to subjugate that Island. These events occurred between the years 58 and 51 B. C.

In ASIA the empire of Rome received vast accessions. PERGAMUS and BITHYNIA were bequeathed to Rome, and became Roman provinces 130 B. C., and 75 B. C. The power of the kingdom of PONTUS was greatly augmented by MITHRIDATES *the Seventh, who engaged in three successive wars with the Romans.* The first was terminated by the defeat of the army of Mithridates, by the Romans under SYLLA, near Chæronea, and Bithynia, Cappadocia, Paphlagonia, and other conquests, were wrested from him, 84 B. C. The second Mithridatic war was of short duration. The third lasted from 73 to 66 B. C. The Romans under LUCULLUS frequently defeated Mithridates, and when he obtained the aid of Tigranes, king of Armenia, which had lately become independent of Parthia, they were equally successful against that monarch, whom they expelled from his kingdom. *The third Mithridatic war was terminated by* POMPEY, 66 *B. C.*, and two years afterwards Mithridates fell by his own hand. He was a prince of extraordinary boldness and capacity, and one of the most dangerous antagonists the Romans ever had to contend with. After the downfall of Mithridates the Roman authority became firmly established in Pontus, Cappadocia, Galatia, and the neighbouring countries, although they did not become Roman provinces in name until many years after. Thrace also became Roman by being bequeathed to Rome. The victory of Pompey over Mithridates was followed by a brilliant career of success, and it is mentioned that at his triumph there appeared the names of fifteen conquered kingdoms, and eight hundred captured cities. By him the

whole of SYRIA was added to the empire of Rome, and JUDÆA or Palestine was rendered tributary. CRETE and CILICIA were also subdued by him.

THE PARTHIANS were the only people of Asia who opposed the Romans with success. The internal history of Parthia, during our present period, presents little more than atrocious crimes. The conquest of Parthia was attempted by CRASSUS, but he was defeated by ORODES, the king of that country, 53 B. C., with a great slaughter of the Romans, and was himself taken prisoner, and put to death. MARK ANTONY was equally unsuccessful against PHRAATES, the successor of Orodes, eighteen years afterwards, and was forced to retreat with great loss. A peace was subsequently concluded between Rome and Parthia, about 20 B. C.

EGYPT, which had long been agitated by a disputed sovereignty, became subject to Rome 30 B. C.

The ROMANS had some battles to fight with foreigners on the Italian soil, as well as in the distant provinces. The TEUTONES, to the number of 300,000, and the CIMBRI, scarcely less numerous, left the North 102 B. C., to seek habitations in Italy. They were defeated by Marius, in successive battles, with immense slaughter.

We now turn to the domestic affairs of ROME, and those wars in which Romans were engaged on both sides. The first great seditions were those excited by TIBERIUS and CAIUS GRACCHUS, two brothers, Tribunes of the people. By espousing the cause, and courting the favour of the populace, they obtained great influence in Rome, but both ultimately perished, the former 133, and the latter 121 B. C. The war between Rome and the rest of Italy, commonly called THE SOCIAL WAR, in its consequences of great importance, *commenced about* 90 *B. C.*, and after the sacrifice of many thousand Italians, *terminated two years afterwards in the admission of all the states of Italy to the privilege of citizens of Rome.* The restoration of peace was speedily followed by new disturbances. SYLLA and MARIUS were rival candidates for the command against Mithridates. Sylla being appointed, Marius had recourse to arms, but was overcome and compelled to fly. CORNELIUS CINNA, however, after the departure of Sylla raised a large force, and, in conjunction with Marius, took possession of Rome, 87 B. C., where all who had incurred the displeasure of the victors were butchered without mercy. Marius died soon afterwards; and about 84 B. C. Cinna was assassinated. On receiving intelligence of these events, Sylla immediately prepared to return from Asia, where he was engaged in conducting the war against Mithridates. On his arrival he was opposed by Carbo at the head of a powerful army, and after several victories, became master of Rome. After rendering the city an unexampled scene of tyranny, cruelty, and bloodshed, *Sylla, of his own accord, resigned the dictatorship, which he had only enjoyed for about three years, and died in the following year* 78 *B. C.* CNEUS POMPEY, who had been of Sylla's party, now became the chief man in Rome, defeated the remains of the Marian faction, and then achieved in Asia the triumphs which have been already mentioned. But, during his victorious career, Rome was in imminent danger from a conspiracy carried on by SERGIUS CATILINE. It was detected by the vigilance of CICERO; some of the conspirators were put to death, and Catiline fell in battle. Pompey, now finding his influence on the decline, formed a union with JULIUS CÆSAR, and with CRASSUS, celebrated for his great wealth, and who had distinguished himself a few years before, by overcoming Spartacus, a gladiator, whose bravery and skill had rendered him formidable. *This, the first triumvirate, was formed* 60 *B. C.* The death of Crassus, in an expedition against the Parthians 53 B. C. has been already mentioned. The great successes of Cæsar in Gaul, were followed by a rupture between him and Pompey; and *Cæsar passed THE RUBICON, which separates Italy from Cisalpine Gaul,* 49 *B. C.*, and thus declared war against Pompey and the Senate. Pompey declining a battle, Cæsar entered Rome, and next proceeded to Spain, where he defeated the armies of the Lieutenants of Pompey. Pompey in the meanwhile was making preparations in Epirus and Greece, and had obtained the support of the principal monarchs of the East. He was successful in the first conflict with Cæsar, but *was completely defeated at PHARSALIA,* 48 *B. C.*, and, being obliged to fly, took refuge in Egypt, where he was assassinated. Cæsar followed Pompey to Egypt, and there settled the claims to the crown in favor of CLEOPATRA. After overcoming Pharnaces, king of Bosporus, with a rapidity which was expressed in his celebrated despatch to the Senate, "*veni, vidi, vici,*" he returned to Rome and thence proceeded to Africa, where he defeated Cato, Scipio, and Juba king of Numidia and Mauretania, 46 B. C. He soon afterwards put an end to the power of his adversaries, by overcoming the sons of Pompey in Spain, became Dictator Perpetuus, 45 B. C., and *was assassinated in the Senate House, March* 15, 44 *B. C.*, by MARCUS BRUTUS, CASSIUS and other conspirators. On the death of Cæsar, OCTAVIANUS CÆSAR, ANTONY, and LEPIDUS, *formed the second triumvirate.* The forces of the triumvirate, and those of the partisans of the Senate, under Brutus and Cassius, met at PHILIPPI, *where the latter were entirely defeated,* 42 *B. C.* Lepidus was ejected from the triumvirate, 34 B. C. The mutual jealousy which had been excited between Cæsar and Antony, now broke out into open war, in consequence of the ill conduct of Antony to Octavia, the sister of Cæsar, whom he had married. Their contending armies met at ACTIUM, *and Antony being utterly defeated in a naval engagement,* 31 *B. C.*, fled with Cleopatra to Egypt, and there perished by his own hand. Cæsar now became Imperator, and soon afterward took the title of AUGUSTUS. *In the 25th year of his reign, and the 4004th year of the world, according to the common computation, CHRIST was born in Judæa.* Herod was then king, under the sanction of Rome, and had extirpated the family of the Maccabees, under whose command the Jews, as has been already mentioned, obtained freedom, and by whom Samaria and Idumæa were annexed to Judæa, during the present period.

The defectiveness of the history of the people of INDIA and CHINA, at a remote period, is the less to be regretted, as there appears to be good reason for believing that their manners and customs have been preserved unchanged for ages. The most distinguished monarch of Hindostan since our last period, was Bikermagit or Vicramaditya, who is believed to have conquered several provinces, and reduced numerous tributary princes to absolute dependence. He began to reign, 56 B. C., which is the common æra of India, and fell in a battle with the confederated princes of the Deccan about the time of the birth of Christ.

CHINA appears to have improved rapidly after an Empire embracing its various tribes had been established. An intercourse with India was opened, 120 B. C., the Chinese became acquainted with Persia, and the more western parts of Asia, and they were visited by the Jews. A kind of paper was in use amongst them, and even a knowledge of Grecian literature is spoken of. The Emperor disposed of the throne of Samarcand, 25 B. C. Soon after the birth of Christ, the Chinese Empire extended from the Corea to the Chinese sea.

A.D.337. AT THE DEATH OF CONSTANTINE.

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NINTH PERIOD.

FROM THE BIRTH OF CHRIST, TO THE DEATH OF CONSTANTINE, A. D. 337.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
ROMAN EMPIRE, embracing	
Italia and Islands	Yellow.
Hispania	
Africa, Numidia, Mauretania	
Grecia	
Macedonia	
Thracia	
Asia Minor	
Armenia	
Mesopotamia	
Syria	
Egypt, Lybia and Cyprus	
Gallia	
Illyricum, Pannonia, Noricum, Rhœtia	
Germania, to the Elbe	
Dacia, to the Danube	
Britannia	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
GERMANIA	Purple.
PERSIAN EMPIRE, embracing	
The countries from Mesopotamia and Armenia to the Indus, and from Sogdiana to the Persian Gulf	Green.
HINDOOSTAN	Grey.
CHINA	Light Brown.

IN the fourteenth year of our Lord, and the forty-third after the battle of Actium, AUGUSTUS *died.* The chief events of his reign since the termination of our last period were the conquests in Germany made by Drusus and Tiberius, who carried their victorious arms as far as the Elbe; but the Roman legions under Varus afterwards sustained a total overthrow. He was succeeded by TIBERIUS, in whose reign the successes of Germanicus avenged the disgrace inflicted on the Romans in Germany. After a tyrannical reign, he died, A. D. 37. Tiberius was succeeded by CAIUS CALIGULA, whose atrocities led to his assassination, after a short reign. CLAUDIUS, a weak and contemptible slave of favourites, was the next emperor, and was followed by NERO, whose inordinate crimes, and amongst them the murder of his mother and the setting fire to Rome, have caused him to be commonly cited as a sort of personification of wickedness. With Nero, who died by his own hand, A. D. 68., the race of Julius Cæsar ended; although it is usual to reckon the number of twelve Cæsars, concluding with Domitian. Galba, Otho, and Vitellius, all elevated to the Imperial rank by military force, rapidly succeeded each other, and all died violent deaths. During the reign of Galba, Civilis, chief of the Batavi, raised a formidable insurrection in Germany. The confusion, into which the empire appeared likely to fall, was now prevented by the election of VESPASIAN, who was made Emperor by the army in Egypt, A. D. 69. He immediately reduced affairs into a state of order. The most memorable event of his reign was *the destruction of Jerusalem by TITUS.* Palestine, soon after the birth of Christ, was divided into three portions, called Tetrarchies, each under a separate ruler. It was afterwards entirely subjected to Rome, and at the time of the death of Christ, A. D. 33. Pontius Pilate was the Roman governor. Herod the Third, became king of all Palestine, A. D. 41, but the country was once more reduced to a Roman province in three years afterwards. A violent opposition to the Roman sway broke out in the year A.D. 66. The country was afterwards subdued, and Jerusalem was destroyed with all its inhabitants, A. D. 70. Several states of Asia Minor became provinces of the empire in the reign of Vespasian. To Vespasian succeeded his son TITUS, whose virtues have been highly commended by historians. In his reign the celebrated irruption of Mount Vesuvius took place, by which Pompeii and Herculaneum were overwhelmed. Titus was succeeded, A. D. 81., by his brother DOMITIAN, who was remarkable for his wanton acts of barbarity, and especially for his cruel persecution of the Christians. During his reign the Dacians, a people of Germany, resisted the Roman power with great success, and at last obtained favourable terms of peace. He was assassinated, and was succeeded, A. D. 96, by NERVA, who reigned only two years. The successor of Nerva was TRAJAN, a prince of great military prowess, and eminent abilities. He subdued the Dacians; and in a triumphant career through Asia, overcame the Parthians, and received the submission of nume-

rous kingdoms, many of which, however, afterwards threw off the Roman yoke. The dispersed Jews rose in rebellion in various parts of the empire, in the commencement of the second century, and perpetrated dreadful massacres, especially in Egypt, Lybia, and Cyprus. Trajan distinguished himself no less by his encouragement of great public works than by his victories. He died A. D. 117. ADRIAN, who succeeded him, was eminent for his learning and talents. His first step was to abandon all conquests made by Trajan beyond the Euphrates, and to leave the Parthians and Armenians at liberty to choose their own kings. He soon afterwards defeated the Roxolanians and Sarmatians who had made an incursion into Illyricum. Seventeen years of his reign were spent in a progress through his empire, nearly the whole of which he visited. Another rising of the Jews took place in this reign, which, after a severe conflict was suppressed by Julius Severus; vast numbers of Jews were slaughtered or sold as slaves, and partly on the ruins of Jerusalem a new city was built called Ælia Capitolina. He died A. D. 138, and was succeeded by ANTONINUS, surnamed Pius, a prince of great virtue and capacity. After Antoninus, who died A. D. 161, LUCIUS AURELIUS VERUS, and MARCUS AURELIUS, an able and sagacious monarch, were nominally joined in authority, but all the power of the empire was in the hands of the latter. After severely contested wars the Romans were successful against the Parthians. Verus died A. D. 164. About a year afterwards the Romans were defeated by the Marcomanni, and this defeat was followed by an incursion into Italy of a numerous host of barbarians from the North. They were beaten and driven back, after many sanguinary conflicts. M. Aurelius died A. D. 180, and was succeeded by his son COMMODUS, a profligate tyrant. The Prætorian bands of Rome were now at the height of insolence and licentiousness, and disposed of the empire at their pleasure. They appointed PERTINAX emperor, but finding him more able and well-disposed than suited their purposes, they put him to death, and sold the title of emperor to DIDIUS JULIANUS.—He soon perished, and three emperors were named by three Roman armies—Septimius Severus in Illyricum, Clodius Albinus in Britain, and Pescennius Niger in Syria. SEVERUS overcame his rivals, established his power, and removed the Prætorian bands from Rome. He governed with vigour and achieved military successes in various parts of the empire. He died A. D. 211, and was succeeded by his sons CARACALLA and GETA. The former having murdered his brother, reigned alone, and committed cruelties and extravagancies of all kinds, until he was murdered by MACRINUS, who was also soon afterwards killed and succeeded by HELIOGABALUS: who, though a mere youth, equalled the very worst of his predecessors in dissoluteness and brutality, and like them died a violent death. Caracalla was unsuccessful in a war in Germany, and it is mentioned that he afterwards paid a sort of tribute to some of the German nations. ALEXANDER SEVERUS was the next emperor, and at a very early age he evinced great virtue and ability, but after a short reign he was murdered. From the death of Alexander, A. D. 235, to the time of Constantine, A. D. 324, there was a rapid succession of emperors who each held the title but a short time. The supreme command was disposed of by the Prætorian bands and the armies, at their pleasure, and history presents little more than a monotonous repetition of warlike conflicts and atrocious crimes. More than once several competitors assumed the imperial title at the same time, and all within a brief space fell by the hand of violence, only to make way for others who soon underwent the same fate. The distresses of the inhabitants of the empire were heightened by the occurrence of earthquakes, pestilence and famine. Of such calamities there is frequent mention in the later annals of the Roman empire. Of the emperors who reigned between Alexander Severus and Constantine, the most distinguished were AURELIAN and DIOCLESIAN. Aurelian reigned from A.D. 270 to A.D. 275, when he was assassinated. He drove out the Alemanni who invaded Italy, and the Goths from Thrace, conquered Zenobia the celebrated queen of Palmyra, and enlarged and fortified Rome. The successors of Aurelian were TACITUS, who was not chosen until after an interregnum of eight months, AURELIUS PROBUS, AURELIUS CARUS and NUMERIANUS. The three former contended successfully against the hosts of barbarians by whom the empire was attacked. The last mentioned was murdered, and DIOCLESIAN became emperor in his stead, A. D. 284. In the next year he made MAXIMIAN his colleague in the empire. They were both successful against the Germans, but rival emperors springing up, each of them appointed his successor, with the title of Cæsar, which was the usual mode of designating the person fixed upon for the imperial dignity after the reigning prince. Dioclesian chose Maximianus Galerius, and Maximian, Constantius Chlorus, and the empire was afterwards divided between them into four portions. In the year 305, Dioclesian and Maximian abdicated. It was during their reign that the tenth and last general persecution of the Christians took place. CONSTANTIUS and GALERIUS were now emperors, but Constantius dying A.D. 306, Maximian endeavoured to resume his power, and there appeared no less than six candidates for the imperial dignity. These were afterwards reduced to two, CONSTANTINE, the son of Constantius, and LICINIUS. For some years the empire was divided, but Licinius was overthrown, A. D. 324, and CONSTANTINE became sole emperor. At this day the reign of Constantine is of greater interest than that of any other of the Roman emperors; for he was the first who favoured Christianity, and in his time, some of the principal sects arose, into which the Christian Church has been divided. His conversion has been attributed to a miraculous appearance in the heavens of the form of a cross, with the motto "*Hoc signo vinces.*" He began his reign by restoring in some measure the dignity of the Senate, and disbanding the Prætorian guards. In order to encourage Christianity he put an end to persecution, abolished the punishment of crucifixion, gave great immunities to the clergy, bestowed large sums on indigent Christians, forbad sacrificing to idols, built churches, closed the temples of the Pagan deities, where it could be done without bloodshed; and published an edict drawn up by himself, addressed to all the people of the empire exhorting them to renounce their ancient superstition and worship one true God. The security which the protection of the emperor gave to Christianity was followed by the breaking out of violent disputes on various points of faith and ceremony. The most considerable was that produced by the doctrines of Arius. In order to settle the matters in controversy, Constantine assembled a general Council of the fathers of the church at Nice in Bithynia, when 318 prelates decided that the Son of God was *consubstantial* with the Father. Here the Nicene creed was drawn up. Constantine afterwards coincided with the Arians, who held a doctrine opposed to that of the Council of Nice, recalled Arius whom he had banished, and banished Athanasius who was a distinguished opponent of Arianism. In the government of the empire, and in the gradations of rank, Constantine introduced various changes to which some modern titles are to be traced. In his wars with the Goths he was successful. One of the most important measures of his reign was the formation of a new capital for the eastern part of the empire. For this purpose he fixed on Byzantium, which was afterwards called Constantinople. There he raised extensive buildings, conferred peculiar privileges on the inhabitants, in order to encourage the increase of the population, and established a Senate and the same ranks and offices as at Rome. The ancient capital was thus weakened and impoverished. Constantine was baptized before his death, which took place A. D. 337.

To this general summary of the annals of the Roman empire, during this period, it is necessary to add a few words respecting some nations which have been incidentally mentioned. The PARTHIANS, under that name, were at intervals engaged in wars with Rome, until the year 226, when Artabanus their monarch was dethroned by ARTAXERXES, a PERSIAN, who made himself master of the Empire of Arsaces, claimed many of the Roman Provinces, and aimed at equalling the greatness of Cyrus. He was the son of Sassan, and thence his dynasty was called that of the SASSANIDES. SAPOR, who succeeded him, took Valerian prisoner (who was then Emperor) A. D. 257, but was afterwards vanquished by Aurelian. In the time of Constantine, Sapor the Second was king of Persia, and was so powerful that he set the Romans at defiance.

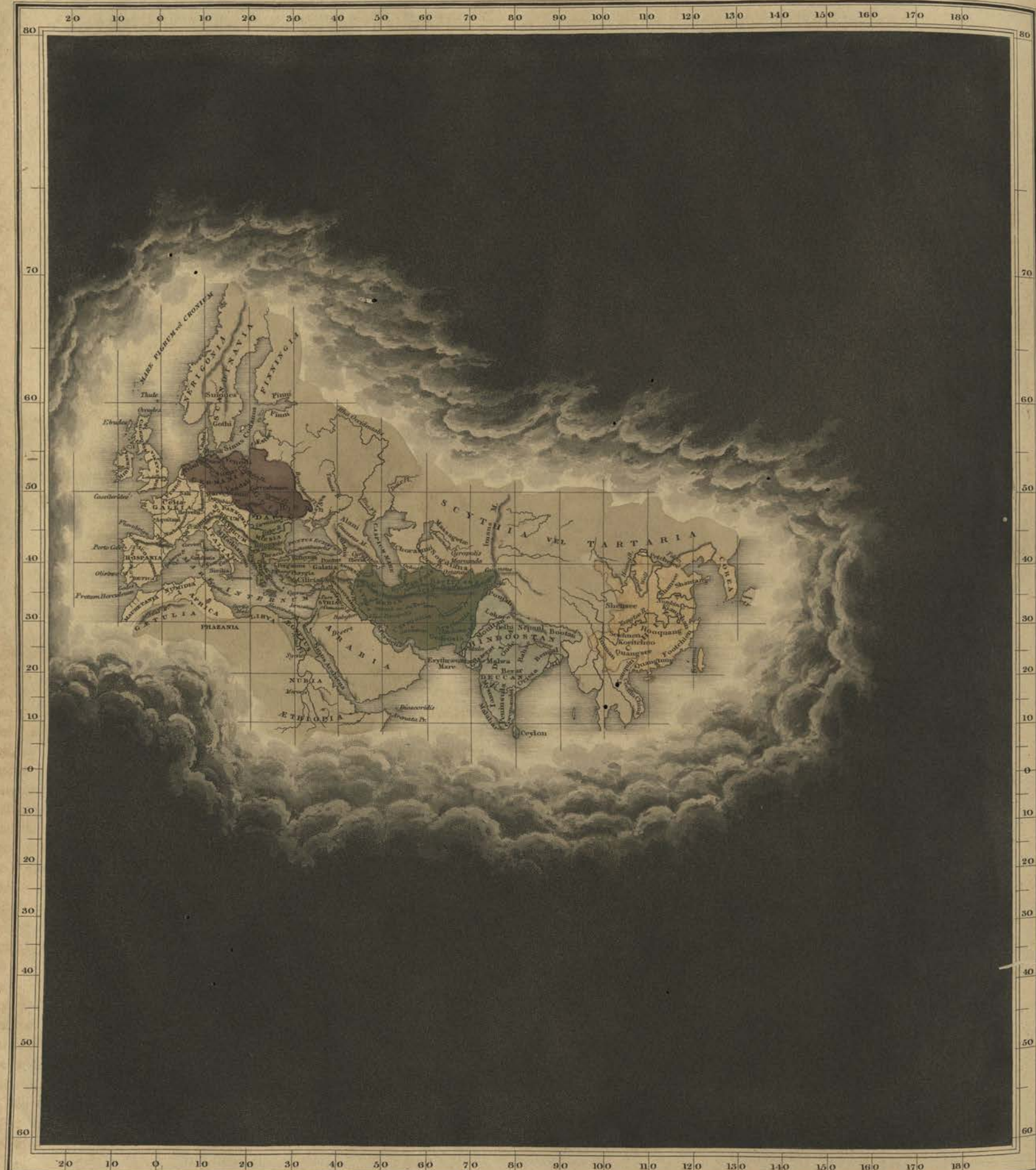
The invasion of BRITAIN has been mentioned. The conquest of that country was commenced under Claudius, in whose reign Caractacus, an illustrious British chief, was carried prisoner to Rome. In that of Nero, Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, revolted and perished in battle, together with a great body of people. Its subjugation was completed in the reign of Vespasian, by Agricola, who subdued Wales, advanced into Caledonia and established military stations between the Firths of Forth and Clyde. In order to restrain the incursions of the Caledonians, a rampart was raised from the Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne by the Emperor Adrian, A. D. 121; another between the Firths of Clyde and Forth in the reign of Antoninus Pius, A. D. 140, and a wall of stone a short distance to the north of Adrian's rampart, by Septimius Severus, A. D. 210. Britain remained a province of Rome until the end of our present period, and of the many candidates for the imperial dignity, several assumed the title in that country.

To the incursions of the NORTHERN NATIONS, and their fierce resistance of the Roman power, there has been frequent occasion to allude. Until about the end of the second century these conflicts were chiefly confined to the Gauls and Germans. About that time the change of names seems to indicate a further influx from the north. We then find the FRANKS (so called from their confederacy in support of their freedom) on the Rhine, and the Salians, one of their tribes, in possession of Belgium; the ALEMANNI on the Upper Rhine, and the SAXONS and FRISII to the north, between the Rhine and the Elbe. About the same time too a body of the Goths, a people who are said to have originally emigrated from Scandinavia, moved down from the lands which they occupied near the Vistula, and spread themselves along the coast of the Euxine. For some years they desolated Mœsia, Thrace, and Macedonia, and A. D. 275 the province of Dacia was given up to them by Aurelian.

On the death of Bickermagit, INDIA appears to have fallen into a dreadful state of confusion, which continued till the close of this period, The petty princes assumed unrestricted sway in their several territories, and the very name of an empire was almost forgotten.

In CHINA, the introduction of the worship of the idol Fo took place A. D. 65. In 97, the Chinese penetrated as far as the Caspian sea, and commenced an intercourse with the Parthians. They knew the Roman empire by the name of Ta-tsin, and in A. D. 166, Gantun of Ta-tsin, by which name they called the emperor Antoninus Philosophus, is said to have sent Elephants' teeth, and Rhinoceros' horns to the emperor of China. In the year 220 the empire was partitioned into three kingdoms, that of Goei, in the North, that of U, in the South, and that of Shohang; but A. D. 280, Yen, a general of Goei, re-united the whole empire,—there were, however, continual wars among the petty tributary princes. In 321 the emperor's court was fixed in the city of Nanking.

A.D.395, THE DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.



London, Published 1 June 1823, by Scoley, & Burwicke, 169 Fleet Street.

Engraved by Sidy Hall, Bury St. Edmunds

TENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DEATH OF CONSTANTINE, A. D. 337, TO THE DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE INTO EASTERN AND WESTERN, ON THE DEATH OF THEODOSIUS, A. D. 395.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
WESTERN ROMAN Empire, embracing	
Italia and Islands	Yellow.
Illyricum, Pannonia, Noricum and Rhætia	Yellow.
Africa, Numidia, Mauretania	Yellow.
Gallia	Yellow.
Hispania	Yellow.
Britannia	Yellow.
GERMANIA	Purple.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
EASTERN ROMAN Empire, embracing	
Grecia and Macedonia	Yellow Green.
Thracia	Yellow Green.
Dacia	Yellow Green.
Mœsia	Yellow Green.
Asia Minor	Yellow Green.
Syria	Yellow Green.
Mesopotamia	Yellow Green.
Egypt	Yellow Green.
PERSIAN Empire, extending from Mesopotamia and Armenia to the Indus, and from Sogdiana to the Persian Gulf	Green.
HINDOOSTAN	Grey.
CHINA	Light Brown.

ON the death of Constantine, his three sons, CONSTANTINE, CONSTANTIUS, and CONSTANS, succeeded to the empire. Constantine had Gaul, Britain and Spain; Constantius, Asia, Syria, and Egypt; Constans, Illyricum, Italy and Africa. Three years afterwards, Constantine wishing to extend his dominions, invaded the territories of his brother Constans, and fell in battle with him. Constans thus became sole emperor of the western provinces; but Magnentius, who commanded some troops on the Rhine, having assumed the purple in Gaul, Constans fled on the report of the insurrection, and was murdered. Two other competitors for the imperial dignity appeared, but they were overcome by Magnentius. Constantius now made Gallus, Cæsar, allotted to him the east with Thrace, as his portion of the empire; and sent him to oppose the Persians, which he did successfully. In order to distress Magnentius, Constantius encouraged the Franks and Saxons to invade Gaul; where they, in consequence, committed dreadful ravages. The rivals met, A. D. 353, at Mursa in Pannonia, where, after a sanguinary conflict Constantius was victorious. Magnentius sustaining other defeats, soon afterwards killed himself. The oppressive conduct of Gallus, and a suspicion that he aimed at the sole possession of the imperial dignity, induced Constantius to cause him to be put to death, A. D. 354. Soon afterwards an irruption of the Franks, Alemanni, and Saxons into Gaul, and of the Quadi and Sarmatians into Mesopotamia and Armenia so endangered the empire, that Constantius was induced to raise his cousin JULIAN to the dignity of Cæsar. Julian, called the apostate, a person of great military talents, speedily defeated the enemy, both in Gaul and Germany, and obliged them to sue for peace. He was soon afterwards declared emperor at Paris, and failing to obtain Constantius's consent to his elevation, he prepared for war; but Constantius died while on his march to meet him, A. D. 361. During the reign of Constantius, the religious disputes which have been already alluded to continued with unabated fury. Several councils were held, but to little purpose; Constantius was in favour of Arianism, but Constans was a zealous opponent of that doctrine; and through his influence Athanasius and other bishops who had been banished were restored. After his death Athanasius was again banished. A law was enacted by Constantius, which exempted bishops from the jurisdiction of the civil magistrate, and left them subject to be tried by bishops only. Julian who had professed Christianity, avowed himself a Pagan soon after he had openly declared against Constantius, and offered up sacrifices in the temples of the heathen deities. Without open oppression he manifested a decided hostility to Christianity by a variety of artful measures calculated to degrade the professors of that religion, and to exalt those who clung to the ancient idolatry. To that, and to the philosophy then in fashion, he on every occasion showed himself superstitiously and warmly devoted. It is mentioned that he made an attempt to rebuild Jerusalem, and was prevented by flames issuing out of the earth. The numerous measures connected with the government of the empire, which he adopted during his very brief reign, did not entirely absorb his attention. He resolved to revenge upon the Persians the disgrace and injury they had inflicted upon the Romans. In pursuance of this design he advanced to Ctesiphon, and, when marching up the Tigris to meet a reinforcement which he expected from Armenia, fell in an engagement with the Persians, A. D. 363. He was succeeded by JOVIAN who was elected by the army. After making

a treaty on very disadvantageous terms with the Persians, he repaired to Antioch, where he manifested his zeal for Christianity by recalling the banished bishops, and repealing many of the regulations of Julian. He died A. D. 364 on his way to Constantinople. The army now chose VALENTINIAN for emperor, who shared the imperial power with his brother VALENS, giving up to him the eastern, and retaining the western provinces himself. The barbarians now renewed their incursions. The Alemanni, the Quadi, and the Sarmatians poured into Gaul, Rhætia, and Pannonia; the Picts and Scots, from Caledonia, into Britain; the Goths into Thrace, and a number of Moorish tribes into the provinces of Africa. Valentinian and his generals succeeded in repelling and chastising all these enemies. In Britain, Theodosius, the father of the emperor, delivered from its invaders the land between the ramparts of Antoninus and Severus, and gave it the name of Valentia. VALENTINIAN died A. D. 375. He was a Christian and a Catholic, (so the opponents of Arianism were called) but he tolerated Paganism, abstained from intermeddling with theological disputes, and restrained the cupidity of the clergy, by confiscating all donations of women for pious uses. While Valentinian was engaged in defending the western part of the empire, Procopius laid claim to the imperial dignity in the east, but was overcome and put to death a few months afterwards. Amongst the troops of Procopius were 3,000 Goths whom Valens took prisoners. Their countrymen demanded that they should be given up, but this was refused by Valens, and a war followed, in which Valens was so successful, that he compelled his antagonists to submit to the terms which he prescribed, and to engage not to pass the Danube. He was also victorious in a battle with the Persians, who had provoked hostilities by the murder of Arsaces, king of Armenia, and by dethroning Sauromates, whom the Romans had placed over Iberia. Valens, unlike his brother, engaged with fury in the theological disputes of the time. He supported Arianism, and persecuted the Catholic Christians with great violence. The charge of magical practices formed also a pretence for the perpetration of innumerable acts of cruelty and oppression, in which Festus the historian, Proconsul of Asia was particularly active. We are now come to that period of the reign of Valens, A. D. 375, when his brother Valentinian died. He was succeeded by his son GRATIAN, with whom his younger brother Valentinian was nominally joined. The evils which the Roman empire had suffered from the advance of the barbarous nations from the north and the east were now greatly increased. The GOTHS, who about the time of Julian, had extended their possessions from the River Tanais to the Tibiscus near the western boundary of Dacia, were afterwards, on the death of their king Ermanaric, divided into Ostro (or East) Goths, and Visi (or West) Goths; the former dwelling near the Euxine, and the latter in Dacia and Podolia. Hordes of savages now pressed forward from the east. These were the HUNS, a people of Tartary, to the north of China, a country entirely unexplored by the more civilized nations, at the time when they suffered from the incursions of its barbarous population. They first occupied the country between the Wolga and the Tanais, then having overcome the ALANI on the coasts of the Palus Mæotis, they drove the Ostro-Goths from the Borysthenes into the territories of the Visi-Goths, who, panic struck, presented themselves on the banks of the Danube to the number of 200,000, and entreated the Romans to grant them an asylum. They were incautiously admitted into Thrace. A large body of the Ostro-Goths soon afterwards followed their countrymen without meeting with any opposition. Through the imprudent conduct of Lupicinus, count of Thrace, the Goths in that country were soon roused to violence, and having augmented their forces by calling in the aid of many of their countrymen from other quarters, and of such of the Huns and Alani as were willing to join them, they ravaged Thrace and the neighbouring territory. Valens, who had discharged a great part of the old troops, marched against them with forces hastily levied. He was totally defeated, and perished with two thirds of his army, A. D. 378. Gratian, who had been delayed on his march to join Valens by a conflict with a tribe of Germans, in which he was victorious, found affairs in such a state that he did not immediately proceed against the Goths, who were in vain assailing Adrianople and Constantinople. He resolved to take for his associate in the empire, THEODOSIUS, son of a very eminent general of the same name, and committed to his authority the provinces which had been governed by Valens. Theodosius soon compelled the Goths to evacuate Thrace, but subsequently, on an offer of a qualified submission to his authority, he allowed them to occupy Thrace and Mœsia, then almost depopulated. In the year 383, Magnus Clemens Maximus assumed the purple in Britain, whence he passed over into Gaul with a force which was to a considerable extent composed of the flower of the British youth, and thus left the country exposed to its northern invaders. Gratian was deserted by a great part of his troops and assassinated. Maximus retained Gaul, Spain, and Britain; and of the rest of the provinces which had been under the government of Gratian, VALENTINIAN the Second, a mere child, was declared emperor. Maximus having driven Valentinian out of Italy, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, as well of that country and of Africa as of the provinces which he already possessed. Theodosius directed his arms against him, overthrew him, and had him put to death, A. D. 388, and gave his dominions to Valentinian. This visit of Theodosius to Italy was rendered memorable by the great influence which his example and authority had in overthrowing paganism, and promoting Christianity, at Rome, A. D. 392. Valentinian was assassinated, and the imperial authority was usurped by Eugenius, but in less than two years afterwards Eugenius was overthrown by Theodosius and slain. During the reign of Theodosius, who was baptized soon after he became emperor, the Christian religion made great progress, notwithstanding violent disputes by which its professors were agitated. Theodosius, with many great and excellent qualities, shared in the spirit of the age, and was unable to comprehend the justice and wisdom of toleration. He addressed a law to the people of Constantinople, by which it is enacted that all his subjects shall profess the Catholic faith with regard to the Trinity, forbad the heterodox from holding any meetings, even in private houses, and permitted the Catholics to use force against them; declared apostates and Manicheans incapable of making a will, and even pronounced the latter worthy of death, and established inquisitors for the discovery of heretics. He also adopted various coercive measures for the suppression of paganism. Gratian was still more zealous in the same cause. Theodosius died A. D. 395, and bequeathed the eastern portion of his empire to his elder son ARCADIUS, and the western to his younger, HONORIUS, making Rufinus minister, or rather guardian to the former, and Stilico to the latter. The Roman empire, which it had already been found expedient to divide, was *now permanently separated into Eastern and Western, the one part having Constantinople, the other Rome for its capital.*

Tranquillity was restored to INDIA by Basdeo, who assumed the imperial honours, and erected a new kingdom at Canouge, in the fourth century.

In the history of CHINA, during this period, there is only one occurrence worthy of remark. In A. D. 386 a separate kingdom was formed in the north, under Tartarian sovereignty, which soon declined into petty states. In conformity with the general practice of writers on Chinese history, we have called the country to the north of China, Tartary, and the people Tartars. How far the designation may be strictly accurate, with reference to this early period, is a question of little importance.

A.D.476. THE DISSOLUTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

London, Published June 1823, by Sealey & Burnside, 169 Fleet Street.

Engraved by Sidd. Hall Bury St. Bloomsb.

ELEVENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE INTO EASTERN AND WESTERN, ON THE DEATH OF THEODOSIUS, A. D. 395, TO THE DISSOLUTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE, A. D. 476.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
ROMAN Eastern Empire, embracing	
Grecia and Macedonia	Yellow Green.
Thracia	
Lower Dacia	
Mœsia	
Taurica	
Asia Minor	
Syria	
Mesopotamia	
Egypt and Libya	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
PERSIAN Empire, embracing From Mesopotamia to the Indus, and from Sogdiana to the Persian Gulf	Green.
NORTHERN NATIONS	Purple.
HINDOOSTAN	Grey.
CHINA	Light Brown.

IN order to prevent confusion, we shall speak of the two empires separately in our sketch of the events of the present period.

In the EAST, ARCADIUS was under the control of Rufinus, who had held a high station under Theodosius. Rufinus is said to have encouraged the Huns to make an incursion into Asia. He was put to death by Gainas, a Goth. Eutropius, a eunuch, was now, for some time, the reigning favourite, but he was expelled by Gainas, who afterward fell in battle with the Huns, after having unsuccessfully attacked Constantinople, in consequence of the refusal of a church for his countrymen. They had embraced Christianity, but were Arians. Arcadius died A. D. 408, and was succeeded by THEODOSIUS THE SECOND, who, like his predecessor, was but nominally emperor. In the early part of his reign, Anthemius governed; and after him Pulcheria, the sister of Theodosius, both with ability and success; but in the latter part he fell under the influence of Chrysaph, a eunuch. By him he was induced to consent to an attempt to assassinate ATTILA, king of the Huns. The attempt was discovered and treated with contempt by the barbarian monarch, who was satisfied by presents and submissive apologies. A threat of war ensured any concessions he required. The Persians in the year A. D. 412 added Armenia to their dominions. Theodosius died A. D. 450. The most remarkable event of his reign was the compilation of the Theodosian Code. He was succeeded by MARCIAN, who married Pulcheria. He died A. D. 457. LEO THE FIRST was now raised to the throne by Aspar, the commander of the troops in the east, whom he afterwards put to death. He expended a vast sum in an expedition against Genseric, king of the Vandals, which ended in the destruction of the troops engaged in it. Leo was crowned by the patriarch of Constantinople. He was the first sovereign crowned by a bishop. He died A. D. 474. He left a son who did not long survive him; and ZENO, an Isaurian, a worthless barbarian, became emperor. He was expelled, but was again restored to the throne, A. D. 477. During this period theological disputes continued to agitate the Christians of the east, various measures were adopted for increasing the power and privileges of the clergy, and severe regulations were enforced for the suppression of heresy and Paganism.

In the WESTERN EMPIRE, during this period, the events are so crowded one upon another, that it is not easy to select the more important so as to combine them in a brief narrative. Soon after the elevation of Honorius to the imperial dignity, ALARIC, a distinguished Gothic chieftain ravaged Greece, and after having been declared king of the Visi-Goths by his army, he invaded Italy, A. D. 401. He was induced by a treaty, which was afterwards violated, to retire beyond the Alps. On this occasion it was that *the residence of the emperors, which had of late been at Milan, was transferred to Ravenna.* Italy was again invaded by a great body of Goths under Rhadagaisus, A. D. 406, but they were defeated by Stilico. About the same time the Burgundi, Suevi, Vandals, and Alani crossed the Rhine in great numbers. The first-named people established a new kingdom in Gaul, and the rest afterwards passed the Pyrenees into Spain. Soon afterwards a soldier of the name of Constantine, who had been chosen emperor by the legions in Britain, went over into Gaul, where his authority was recognized. His son Constans succeeded in establishing himself in Spain. Alaric, who was on the point of invading Italy, was induced to delay his march by a promise of a quantity of gold; but Stilico, under whose sanction the promise was made, was murdered soon afterwards by Honorius, and the stipulated gold not being paid, Alaric advanced to Rome. He retired on the payment of a large sum of money, and the conclusion of a treaty. The stipulations of the treaty not being performed, he advanced once more to Rome, and after a resistance of a few days entered that city, A. D. 409. Here he declared Honorius unworthy to govern, and made Attalus, then

prefect of Rome, emperor. Alaric proceeded in his victorious career in Italy, but the commanders of Honorius in Africa holding out against the new emperor, and the supplies of corn being interrupted, the inhabitants of Rome suffered dreadful famine. In the following year, A. D. 410, the Romans having closed their gates against Alaric, he again took the city and delivered it up to be pillaged by his troops, with orders to spare the churches, and respect the protection which their sanctity afforded. A frightful devastation was the consequence. Alaric died soon afterwards, while he was preparing for an expedition into Africa. He was succeeded as king of the Goths by Ataulfus. Constantine was now conquered by Constantius an eminent Roman general, and Heraclianus having declared himself emperor in Africa, and invaded Italy, was also overcome. Amongst the prisoners taken by Alaric, at Rome, was Placidia the sister of Honorius. She was subsequently married to Ataulfus, but he died soon afterwards, and she was delivered up to Honorius by Vallia, who succeeded him. Vallia having taken several provinces from the Vandals and Alaric, in Spain, ceded them to Honorius, who granted to him in exchange an extensive district in the south of France, of which Thoulouse became the capital. It is said, but some doubt is entertained on the subject, that about this time the FRANKS, under their king Pharamond, settled in the country situated between Maestricht and the confluence of the Maes and Waal, A. D. 421. Constantius having married Placidia, the sister of Honorius, was made his partner in the empire. He did not long survive his elevation. Honorius died A. D. 423. The regulations introduced in the western empire for the support of orthodoxy and the suppression of its antagonists, were not less rigorous than those in the east. One of the most memorable was a law, that no clerk should be accused, except before a bishop, and that the accuser should be held infamous if he did not prove his charge. On the death of Honorius the imperial dignity was assumed by JOHN, who had been secretary of state under the late emperor, but he was dethroned two years afterwards, and VALENTINIAN, the son of Constantius, a child of five years old, was declared emperor, under the guardianship of his mother Placidia. The evils which the empire was suffering from its barbarian enemies were heightened by dissensions amongst those on whom its defence principally depended. The two most eminent generals of the time were Aetius and Bonifacius. The latter having been disgraced, invited the Vandals under Genseric into Africa. His allies became his masters, and, except Cirtha and Carthage, the Romans were soon deprived of all their possessions in Africa. In Gaul, the peasants under the name of Bagaudæ rose in arms and ravaged the country; the Visi-Goths laid siege to Narbonne; Clodion, king of the Franks, seized on several places in the north, and others of his countrymen made acquisitions in the north-east. In Spain, the Suevi subdued Bætica and other countries abandoned by the Vandals, but were afterwards driven into the northern provinces by the Visi-Goths. In Britain, the Saxons and Angles began that conquest, which they completed at a subsequent period, and the authority of Rome was at an end. These dismemberments were not the only misfortunes of the time. A new and most formidable enemy appeared in the person of ATTILA, king of the Huns. He had acquired vast dominions to the northward of the Roman provinces, he then laid the empire under contribution whenever he thought proper, and in 451 he entered Gaul at the head of a very numerous body, composed partly of his own countrymen, and partly of other barbarous nations which he had conquered. THEODORIC, the king of the Ostro-Goths, joined the Romans, and Attila was defeated with great slaughter. In the following year, however, he invaded Italy. It was during his advance towards Rome, that the inhabitants of Venetia and Emilia fled for refuge to the Islands in the Gulf, *and thus originated the city of Venice.* On the approach of Attila to Rome, St. Leo, then Pope, and two other deputies met him and implored his mercy. He consented to spare the city on payment of a tribute, and withdrew threatening to return if Honoria, the daughter of the empress, to whose hand he made pretensions, was not sent after him. After his death his vast dominions were divided, and the Huns were weakened by sanguinary wars, in consequence of dissensions amongst his sons. The miserable condition of Rome was aggravated by the vices of the emperor. After murdering Aetius with his own hand, he was assassinated by Maximus, A. D. 455, and succeeded by him in the empire. In 446 Valentinian made a decree, prohibiting all bishops from making any innovations without the authority of the Pope, and providing that ordinances of that pontiff should be laws to all other bishops, and that bishops refusing to appear before him should be compelled by the secular authorities. Maximus had scarcely usurped the imperial title, before Italy was invaded by Genseric, king of the Vandals. Maximus was put to death in an attempt to escape, and Rome was pillaged. RICIMER the son of a prince of the Suevi, retained the sovereign power without the title of emperor, for seventeen years after the death of Maximus. He first placed Avitus on the throne, whom he speedily dethroned; then Majorianus, who displayed considerable talents, as well for war as for government, and was victorious over the Vandals and the Visi-Goths. Him Ricimer caused to be assassinated and substituted for him Severus, of whom nothing is known but the name. The name of the next emperor was Anthemius. Against him Ricimer rebelled, and put him to death after having taken and pillaged Rome. The names of Olybrius, Glycerius, and Nepos, as emperors next follow. Nepos was succeeded by his son Romulus, commonly called Augustulus, with whom *ended the Empire of the West, A. D.* 476. ODOACER, at the head of several tribes of barbarians, of whom the principal were the Heruli, subdued all Italy, and Sicily was ceded to him by Genseric.

The few troops remaining in BRITAIN were almost all taken over to Gaul about 408, and the Britons, left to themselves, invited over the Saxons to assist them against the Picts and Scots in the year 449. The Saxons, having repelled the invaders, began the conquest of Britain for themselves, and after much opposition had established their first kingdom, that of Kent, before the close of the present period.

The progress of the barbarous nations from the north, which has been occasionally mentioned, will be made clear by our sketch, up to the close of the present period. The Empire of the HUNS had now fallen. The OSTRO-GOTHS had possession of Pannonia. The VISI-GOTHS had driven the VANDALS out of Spain, and had founded a powerful kingdom in that country, and extending in France to the Rhone and the Loire. The VANDALS had passed over into Africa, and obtained possession of all the dominion which the Romans had held in that country. The FRANKS had spread from Belgium, to which they were for some time confined, as far as the Seine and the Loire, the BURGUNDIANS were between the Rhone, the Loire, and the Rhine, and a colony of BRITONS held Armorica, from them called Bretagne. The HERULI and RUGII were masters of Italy. The SAXONS and FRISII were in the north west, in Holland and along the coast to the Elbe. The ALEMANNI were in the south east.

The PERSIAN EMPIRE established by the dynasty of the Sassanides had suffered no dismemberment, and, as has been already mentioned, Armenia had been added to it.

Our knowledge of the progress of INDIA and the transactions which occurred in it during this period is extremely scanty and unsatisfactory. Basdeo and his posterity are said to have reigned eighty years, when Ramsdeo, general of the forces, became emperor. After a glorious reign of fifty-four years, his death gave occasion to a civil war between his sons for the succession. Notwithstanding the power of Ramsdeo he paid tribute to Persia.

About the year 420, CHINA was divided into two empires.

A.D. 814. EXHIBITING THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

London, Published Aug.t 1812, by Seeley & Burnside, 169, Fleet Street.

Engraved by Sidf. Hall, Bury St.t Bloomsbf

TWELFTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DISSOLUTION OF THE WESTERN ROMAN EMPIRE, A. D. 476, TO THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE, A. D. 814.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
Anglia	Crimson.
Empire of Charlemagne, embracing	
Francia	Yellow.
Marche of Spain	
Germania, including as tributary the Bohemians, Moravians, and some other neighbouring people	
Upper Italy	
Corsica and Sardinia	
Oviedo	Light Blue.
Greek Empire, embracing	
Asia Minor	Yellow-Green.
Caffa	
Thrace	
Macedonia and Epirus	
Servia and Croatia	
Greece	
Part of Italy and Sicily	
Cyprus, Rhodes and Crete	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
Mahometan Empire, embracing	
The Northern Part of Africa	Green.
Egypt	
Arabia	
Syria	
Armenia	
Persia	
Bucharia	
Karasm	
Turkistan	
Part of Spain	
Hindoostan	Grey.
China	Light Brown.

THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE, or, as it began to be called towards the close of this period, the Greek empire, greatly declined in vigour and extent before the expiration of the time included in our present narrative. Zeno died A. D. 491, after a disgraceful reign; the most remarkable occurrence of which was the progress of THEODORIC, king of the Ostro-Goths. He compelled the emperor to cede to him part of Lower Dacia and Mœsia, and after a short peace entered Thrace, advanced towards Constantinople, and is believed to have obtained from Zeno a cession of the kingdom of Italy, as the price of his forbearance from attacking that capital. Zeno was succeeded by Anastasius, who engaged violently in the theological disputes which were then the fruitful source of perpetual disturbance, and by abolishing certain acts of the council of Chalcedon caused the first religious war. During his reign the empire was repeatedly assailed by the Bulgarians from the shores of the sea of Azof, and by other barbarous nations. Amongst the remarkable acts of the reign of Anastasius were the building of the famous long wall for the protection of Constantinople, and the acknowledgment of the kingdom of the Franks. He died A. D. 518, and was succeeded by Justin, a Thracian of obscure birth. Justin was a Catholic, and his reign was remarkable for little more than his undoing all that had been done by Anastasius, who was a follower of Eutyches. He propagated orthodoxy by zealous persecution. It was in the time of Justin that the first monastic order, that of the Benedictines, was established. Justin died, and was succeeded by his nephew JUSTINIAN, A. D. 527. BELISARIUS, a celebrated general, soon afterwards sailed for Africa with a small army and in two years *destroyed the power of the Vandals, and attached their dominions to the empire.* A war was then undertaken against the Goths in ITALY, but, before we notice its progress and result, it will be necessary to give a brief review of the transactions which had taken place in that country. Our last period left it in the possession of the Heruli under Odoacer, and in our present we have mentioned the cession said to have been made by Zeno. Theodoric invaded Italy A. D. 489, and in 493 he overcame and slew Odoacer and was proclaimed king, but acknowledged himself to hold his kingdom of the emperor of the east. Italy was happy under his government, for his economy produced plenty, whilst his justice ensured universal security. At his death, which happened A. D. 526, the kingdom of the Ostro-Goths embraced Rhætia, Vindelicia, Noricum, Dalmatia, Pannonia, Dacia, and Italy. Theodoric was succeeded by his grandson Athalaric, then only ten years of age. His mother Almasuntha, a virtuous and able princess, held the reins of government until the death of Athalaric in 534. The Ostrogothic power during this time had so much declined, that it was now almost entirely confined to Italy. On the death of Athalaric, Almasuntha raised Theodatus, the only surviving male branch of the royal

family, to the throne, who in return caused her to be murdered. This act of treachery afforded Justinian a pretence for attacking the Goths, and in the year 535 he seized upon Sicily. In the following year Belisarius obtaining some successes in Italy; the Goths put Theodatus to death, and raised Vitiges to the throne. Belisarius entered Rome, and with a small force repelled a numerous army of Goths, and subsequently gained possession of Ravenna. He refused the crown which was offered to him by the Goths, and having been recalled to Constantinople returned in triumph A. D. 541. Vitiges having been succeeded by Totila, the Goths were once more victorious, and Belisarius, who was sent back into Italy, was without sufficient force to check their progress. He, however, again defended Rome against their attacks, but after his departure they re-took that city, and overran Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, and their fleets plundered the coasts of Greece and Epirus. NARSES was now appointed commander in Italy, and arrived there with a numerous army, partly composed of Longobardi, or Lombards, who had settled in Pannonia and Noricum. Totila was killed in battle, and the power of the Goths rapidly declined. Teia, a valiant leader, was proclaimed king, but he fell in a general engagement, and *the kingdom of the Ostro-Goths, in Italy, ended A. D.* 554. While war was successfully carried on in Italy, the Persians and northern barbarians were greatly weakening the empire. Thrace was threatened by the Lombards, by the Heruli, established in Mœsia, and above all by the Sclavonians who became formidable soon after the beginning of the reign of Justinian. That warlike nation moved down from the northern parts of Sarmatia, and spreading along the Palus Mæotis, and the Vistula, followed the steps of the Vandals, and fixed their habitation between that river and the Dneister. In the year 559 the Huns advanced to within a few miles of Constantinople, and were repulsed by Belisarius. About the same time the Avares, till then unknown, advanced from Scythia, or Tartary, levied contributions on the empire, and occupied Dacia and some adjacent territory. Justinian died A. D. 565. He signalized his reign, not only by re-uniting Italy and Africa to the empire, but by the promulgation of a code of laws, and by building stately edifices in almost all the cities of his empire. In ecclesiastical affairs, he was intolerant and dogmatical. Justin his nephew succeeded him. At the instance of the Massagetæ, now beginning to be called *Turks*, he refused further subsidies to the Avares. Narses, being charged with aiming at independence, was deprived of the government of Italy, and being further offended by an insult offered to him by the empress, he invited his former allies, the LOMBARDS, to invade that country. In the following *year, 568, they entered Italy without opposition, and under the command of their king Alboin soon became masters of Venetia, Liguria, Æmilia, Hetruria, and Umbria.* Pavia was their capital. Alboin was murdered in 572, and in eighteen months afterwards Clef, his successor, suffered a similar fate. An oligarchy of thirty-six dukes then prevailed for ten years, when it gave way to an elective monarchy. About this time the law of fiefs was established. Justin died A. D. 578, and was succeeded by Tiberius, who after a short reign was followed by Mauritius, who made unavailing efforts to restore the authority of the empire until 602, when he was deposed and Phocas was made emperor. By virtue of a grant from him the bishop of Rome became universal bishop, A. D. 606. After perpetrating many atrocious crimes, Phocas was put to death by Heraclius, an African, who assumed the purple A. D. 610. He displayed valour and ability, and was successful against the Persians; but the misfortunes of the empire increased on all sides, and were heightened by the zeal of the emperor in theological controversy. The little which remained to the empire in Spain was seized upon by the Visi-Goths. The Persians took Jerusalem, and laid waste Egypt; the Lombards gained new territories in Italy; and the Avares imposed a tribute as the price of peace. Heraclius died A. D. 641, and his son Heracleonas, was murdered a few months afterwards. Constans II, his successor, perished in a similar manner, after a reign of twenty-six years, and in 668 Constantine IV. became emperor. In his reign the Saracens, an Arabian people, attacked Constantinople, but were repulsed by the invention of the Greek fire. Constantine died A. D. 685. His son, Justinian II, next became emperor. He was dethroned in 695, but was restored by the Bulgarians, to whom some additional territory was given as a reward for their services. The Lombards had not only maintained their possessions in Italy, but had now acquired new territories under Grimoald and Luitprand their kings, had received written laws, and had abandoned Arianism. Disputes between the pope of Rome and the Greek emperors and exarchs, for so the governors of the Greek portion of Italy were styled, had been frequent since the rise of the papal authority, and continued, notwithstanding the concession of the title of universal bishop by Phocas. In 663 Rome was pillaged by Constans; but in 711, in which year he was assassinated, Justinian II. testified his submission by kissing the feet of Pope Constantine. The next emperors in succession were Philippicus, Anastasius, and Leo III, remarkable for his zeal against the worshipping of images. Leo was succeeded, in 741, by his son, Constantine V., surnamed Copronymus, from his suppression of cloisters. Constantine defeated the Bulgarians and Saracens, but *Rome expelled such of the emperor's officers as had been allowed to remain there, and he lost all his possessions in Italy except Calabria, and Brutium, and the dukedoms of Naples, Amalfi, and Gaeta.* The pope, aided by Pepin king of France, became an independent prince, at the expence both of the Lombards and the empire. Constantine dying in 775, his son Leo IV. succeeded to the empire; who, after a reign of five years, was followed by Constantine VI, surnamed Porphyrogenitus. He was only ten years old, and his mother Irene assumed the administration of affairs. She caused her son to be murdered in 797, and became empress, but was deposed by Nicephorus I, who fell in battle 811. The next emperors were Stauracius and Michael I; the latter abdicated in 813, and was succeeded by Leo V.

The Veneti continued in the islands to which they had fled, and by degrees became of importance. At first each island was governed by a tribune elected by the people, but in 696, for mutual protection, the whole were united under one Doge. In 810 Rialto became the seat of government, and by its being connected with the other islands, by means of bridges, the city of VENICE was formed.

Of the history of the PERSIAN EMPIRE little is to be said. It is nothing more than a monotonous narrative of warlike expeditions. The Persians were generally successful in their wars with the empire, and levied enormous contributions. At the commencement of this period they were tributary to the Huns; but about 500, Cabades threw off their yoke. Under Khosru I, from 531 to 579, the Persian dominions were of vast extent; and they were further aggrandized by Khosru II, from 591 to 616; but the Persian arms were afterwards checked in their progress by Heraclius. *After the year* 630 *they contended unsuccessfully against the Arabians, and were subdued, A. D.* 651.

Of the origin and growth of the ARABIAN (or Saracen) EMPIRE we have now to speak. Although Arabia is amongst the countries the names of which appear in Scripture and in other early books, there is nothing to give it importance in the page of general history until the present period. MAHOMET *was born at Mecca, A. D.* 569, *and professed himself the true prophet, A. D.* 609. His doctrines were opposed by violence, and he was obliged to have recourse to flight, A. D. 622, when he took refuge at Medina. On this event is founded the Mahometan epoch of *the Hegira,*

or Flight. With his Koran, which he declared to be the book of God, in one hand, and his sabre in the other, he laid the foundation of a vast empire. After subduing many neighbouring tribes, he died, A. D. 632, and was succeeded by his nephew, Abu-Beker. The successors of Mahomet were known by the title of CALIPH. Omar, who succeeded Abu-Beker, conquered Jerusalem, all Palestine, Syria, Egypt, where the celebrated library at Alexandria was burnt, a considerable part of Persia and Armenia. He was assassinated 644, but the Arabians continued their triumphant career under Othman, his successor. The subjugation of Persia was completed, the islands of Cyprus and Rhodes were taken, and conquests were made in Africa. Othman was murdered in 654, and Ali, who succeeded him, suffered a similar fate. Moawiyah became commander in 660, and with him commenced the dynasty of the Ommiades. He overran Sicily, and besieged Constantinople, but was defeated in Syria, and Sicily was seized upon by the Lombards. He died in 679. His successors continued to make expeditions against the eastern provinces of the empire, and to increase their power until 750, when a revolution took place; the Ommiades passed over into Africa, and the dynasty of the Abassides commenced. Of the conquests of the Arabians in Spain we shall presently have occasion to speak. From the reign of Caliph Al Mansur, which began in 762, in which year Bagdad was built, to the close of the present period, the Arabian empire was in its most flourishing state. HARUN-AL-RASCHID, whose virtues have been highly commended by historians, reigned from 786 to 808. Mauretania and the north of Africa, from Egypt to Tunis, had been subjugated by the Saracens, and were now independent kingdoms.

THE VISI-GOTHS retained possession of SPAIN from the close of the last period up to 711, when, in consequence of internal dissensions among the Goths, an army of Saracens, who now in common with the other inhabitants of Mauretania were called MOORS, landed at Gibel Tarick, since Gibraltar. In the next year they gained the decisive battle of Xeres, and Roderick, the king of the Goths, disappeared. The Moors overran the country, and the Christians retained only Oveido, the Asturias, Burgos, and Biscay. The part of Spain held by the Moors was erected into an independent kingdom, of which Cordova was the capital. New states were formed by the Goths between the Douro and Minho, in Portucallia, or Portugal; and they afterwards recovered some of their possessions in Galicia, Leon, and Castille.

We must now turn to the history of THE FRANKS, who became a powerful nation previously to the close of this period. CLOVIS ascended the throne in 481. By a victory at Soissons, in 486, he annihilated the remnant of the Roman power in Gaul, henceforth called Francia, or FRANCE, and after rendering the Thuringii tributary he subdued the Alemanni, in 496. He embraced Christianity, rendered the Salic law efficient, placed a colony upon the Maine, subjected the Armoricans, confined the Visi-Goths to Languedoc, by a victory which he gained at Vouillé, made Paris the capital of the kingdom, and *was the founder of the Merovingian dynasty*. He died A. D. 511. His four sons divided the kingdom. Thierry reigned at Mentz, Clodomir at Orleans, Clothaire at Soissons, and Childebert at Paris. After much intrigue and contention, Clothaire became sole king. On his death in 561, France was again divided. To Caribert fell Paris, to Gontram, Orleans, to Sigebert, Metz or Austrasia, and to Chilperic, Soissons. Gontram had Orleans, and was afterwards styled king of Burgundy. Innumerable family dissensions and monstrous atrocities followed, which were at length checked by Clothaire the Second who became sole king in 613. He instituted mayors of the palace, a kind of viceroys, who ultimately assumed regal authority. Dagobert succeeded to the throne in 628, and from 631 to 638, when he died, he ruled the whole of France. On his death the kingdom was once more divided. Affairs were in a confused and disturbed state until near the close of this century, when Pepin d'Heristhal, mayor of the palace, established his authority thoughout the kingdom, and humbled the neighbouring nations. He was succeeded in 714 by Charles Martel, who though at first only mayor of the palace in Austrasia, by his valour and ability acquired a command over the whole monarchy. He checked the progress of the Saracens by a great victory which he gained near Tours, in 732, and bequeathed the kingdom, in 741, to his two sons Carloman and Pepin the short. Carloman retired from public life in 746, and in 750 PEPIN was regularly acknowledged monarch of the kingdom. *With him began the Carlovingian dynasty*. On the invitation of the pope, Pepin entered Italy, and after a successful campaign, invested the pope, as has already been mentioned, with temporal power. Pepin took Narbonne, annexed Bavaria to his kingdom, received homage from the king of the Sclavonians, and increased a tribute which had been imposed upon the Saxons. He died 768, respected at home and abroad, and was succeeded by his sons Charles and Carloman. Carloman dying in 771, CHARLES, *called Charlemagne, or Charles the Great*, became monarch. The Saxons refusing to pay the usual tribute, a war commenced which continued at intervals for thirty-three years. The Saxons consisted of many tribes, each commanded by its duke. Charles and Carloman had married two daughters of Desiderius, king of the Lombards. Charles soon divorced his wife, and the widow of Carloman, with her two sons, sought an asylum with Desiderius. He was desirous that the pope, Adrian the First, should adopt the sons of Carloman, but Adrian refused, and applied to Charles for assistance. Charles complied with alacrity, confirmed the gifts of his father to the pope, overcame the Lombards, and was crowned king of Lombardy, with an iron crown, by the archbishop of Milan. He afterwards appointed his son Pepin king of Italy, and at the instigation of the revolted governors of Arragon and Saragossa, he crossed the Pyrenees against the Moors in 778, and became master of the Spanish Marche. In the year 800 he received from the pope at Rome, the title of emperor of the Romans. He drove the Sclavonians from the country which is now called Mecklenburg, and thus extended his dominions to the Baltic, conquered Majorca and Minorca, concluded his war with the Saxons by the subjugation of the Westphalians, Eastphalians, and Angrians, and secured his empire against the inroads of the Normans, a predatory race, inhabiting ancient Scandinavia, which comprised the modern kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. His fame having reached the celebrated Caliph Haroun al Raschid, the Arabian gave up to him the holy places in Jerusalem. In 813 Charlemagne associated his son Louis with him in the empire, and died in the following year. He has been justly celebrated as one of the greatest monarchs that ever lived, having been no less distinguished by his encouragement of the arts of peace, than by his triumphs in war.

Of the more NORTHERN NATIONS of Europe, up to the end of this period little is known. That the chiefs were powerful in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, is evident from the expeditions which the histories of other countries prove them to have carried into effect. Still less was known of the Finni and other tribes on the eastern coast of the Baltic or Mare Barbarum. Of the Nomadic nations to the north of the Greek empire, and that of Charlemagne, it is proper that some mention should be made, as some of them afterwards rose into important states, although it is impossible to fix their limits with any accuracy, or present any historical account of them at this early time. The Sclavi and Wends, spreading from the north-east of Europe, settled upon the Vistula about the year 500, and extended themselves to the Dniester. In 527, they penetrated into Illyria, and founded Ragusa in 549.

The chief tribes, besides those who occupied the vast country, now known as Russia, were the Sorabians, who settled between the Saale and the Oder, the Czeches in Bohemia, the Moravians, Obotriti, Wilzi, and Pomerani on the shores of the Baltic, the Moravians more inland, the Sclavi in Carinthia and Carniola, and the Croats in Mœsia, Dalmatia and Esclavonia. The whole of these tribes were subject to Charlemagne. The Gepidæ were finally subdued by the Lombards in 552, and disappeared amongst the Avares; which people, migrating from Tartary, spread terror along the Danube, and appeared before Constantinople in 619. Their power, however, soon declined, and in 800 Charlemagne made war upon them, when they disappeared amongst the Esclavonians and Bulgarians. The last-mentioned people proceeding westward from the sea of Azof occupied a considerable territory to the north and south of the Danube. They had been pressed forward by the Onogurians (Hungarians), who in their turn had been driven out by the Khazarians. The Khazarians were invaded by the Petchenegans, who afterwards passed further westward. The Polazi and Leches, who occupied the country since known as Poland, are said to have emigrated from Colchis near the Euxine. Cracus is said to have been elected their king, and to have founded Cracow before the close of this period.

During this period, the Saxons proceeded in their conquest of BRITAIN; they established their kingdom of Sussex in 490; of Wessex in 519; of Essex about 527; of Northumbria in 547; of East Anglia about 575; and of Mercia about 586. These, with the kingdom of Kent, already founded, formed the Heptarchy. The only parts in which the ancient Britons retained an independent footing were Cornwall, Wales, Cumberland, and Galloway. About the year 600 christianity was introduced, and new laws were enacted in Kent, by Ethelbert. Convents afterwards became numerous, and there was considerable intercourse with Rome. The country however, was in a state of great disorder until the reign of Egbert, which belongs more properly to our next period than to this. Ireland, or HIBERNIA as it was then called, was in a state of almost continual internal warfare; but in the sixth and seventh centuries, the number of bishopricks, convents, and schools, was much increased, and the seminaries in Armagh, Lismore and other places are said to have been in high repute.

In INDIA no monarch appeared of sufficient celebrity to require mention here until Puloman, who died A. D. 648. He had united many of the petty states into one empire, but they were again separated on his death. The first incursion of the Mahometans into India took place A. D. 636, various other attempts followed, and before the close of this period they had gained some footing, although their progress was by no means such as to give promise of the successes they afterwards achieved. The kingdom of Pegu in the eastern Peninsula of India, which afterwards became powerful, was founded before the close of this period.

The history of CHINA presents little worthy of particular mention. In the fifth century a philosopher appeared who taught that all events are the work of chance, and that the soul perishes with the body: about the close of the sixth, the people of the Corea were finally subdued: about 630, Christianity became known, and missionaries were allowed to preach; and towards the close of the period there were internal wars, and incursions of the Mandshurs and Mongols or Moguls, commonly called Tartars, which name was given to the inhabitants of Central Asia, generally, although in fact they consisted of several distinct races of people.

A.D. 912. DISSOLUTION OF THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

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THIRTEENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE, A. D. 814, TO THE DISSOLUTION OF HIS EMPIRE, A. D. 912.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
England	Crimson.
Scotland	Pink.
France, with the Spanish Marche, and Lorraine	Yellow.
Kingdom of Burgundy	Brown.
Empire of Germany, including as tributary the Bohemians, Moravians, and some other neighbouring people	Purple.
Italy (Lombardy, Rome, &c.)	Lilac.
Oviedo	Light Blue.
Greek Empire, embracing	
Asia Minor	Yellow Green.
Caffa	
Thrace	
Macedon and Epirus	
Servia and Croatia	
Greece	
Part of Italy	
Cyprus and Rhodes	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
Mahometan Empire, embracing	
The Northern Part of Africa	Green.
Egypt	
Arabia	
Syria	
Armenia	
Persia	
Bucharia	
Karasm	
Turkistan	
Part of Spain	
Sardinia, Corsica	
Sicily and Malta	
Hindoostan	Grey.
China	Light Brown.

THE paramount importance of the history of Europe, induces us henceforth to commence our narrative with it. CHARLEMAGNE had established a great empire, but it required a genius like his to maintain it. His son Louis the Debonnaire was of an imbecile and pusillanimous character. He had scarcely assumed the sceptre, when the clergy found ample opportunity to increase their power; and in 817, he further diminished his authority by partitioning the empire amongst his sons. He made Lothaire the eldest, his partner in the imperial dignity, to Pepin, he gave Aquitaine, and to Louis, Bavaria. Upon this partition, Bernard, king of Italy, and grandson of Charlemagne, revolted and raised an army against Lothaire, but he was defeated, his eyes were put out, and he died soon afterwards. Louis subsequently exhibited the most degrading subserviency to the church, the popes no longer waited for the imperial confirmation of their election, and the clergy claimed an exemption from civil jurisdiction. By a second wife, Judith of Bavaria, Louis had a son afterwards called Charles the Bald, and he made another division of the empire, in consequence of which, his three elder sons united and rebelled, countenanced and assisted by the pope; and Louis was deposed. He was soon reinstated, but fresh dissensions were fomented by Judith; and Louis died in the year 840, while on his march against his son Louis, king of Bavaria. Lothaire, after being defeated in an attempt to obtain possession of the dominions of his brothers, was ultimately left in possession of the imperial dignity, with Italy and the countries between the Rhone, the Alps, the Meuse, and the Rhine; while Charles preserved Neustria and Aquitaine, with the title of king of France; and Louis the German, having all the provinces east of the Rhine, was styled king of Germany. Lothaire appointed his son Louis king of Italy. The death of Lothaire, which happened 855, caused new divisions in the empire of Charlemagne. Louis had Italy, with the title of emperor, Lothaire II, the kingdom of Lotharingia, a rather more extensive territory than what was afterwards Lorraine; and Charles, his third son, had the kingdom of Provence, the southern part of the country between the Rhone, the Mediterranean and the Alps. These divisions, and subdivisions, necessarily created much confusion, and the consequent misery was greatly increased by the weakness and turbulent spirit of Charles the Bald. The Normans or Northmen, from Sweden and Denmark, infested France, even from Rouen to Paris; and not content with pillaging the towns and coast, settled themselves upon the Seine and the Somme. These distractions led to the invasion of the country by Louis the German, and the dethronement of Charles the Bald; but he was afterwards reinstated through the influence of the clergy. About the same time, Louis erected Holland into a separate state. Popes Nicholas I, and Adrian II, in the midst of this contention, augmented the power of the church. On the death of Lothaire II, in 869, the kingdom of Lorraine was divided between Charles the Bald, and Louis the German; and on that of Louis II. without male heirs, in 875, pope John VIII. confirmed Charles in the possession of Italy and the imperial dignity. Louis the German died shortly after, when his dominions were partitioned amongst

his three sons. Carloman had Bavaria; Louis, Saxony; and Charles the Gross, Suabia. In 876 the nobles were permitted, by Charles the Bald, to transmit their employments to their sons or relations, a privilege which was the source of many disorders. Charles died in 877, and was succeeded by his son Louis the Stammerer, who reigned only two years. He left two sons, Louis III. and Carloman, and the latter succeeded to the throne with his elder brother, through the influence of Duke Boson, whose daughter he had married. Boson also prevailed to have a new kingdom formed, called Arles, or Provence, and the crown was bestowed upon himself. Charles the Gross, on the death of his brothers, succeeded to their kingdoms, and in 884 re-united under his sway all the empire of Charlemagne, except the kingdom of Arles, and the Spanish Marche. The new monarch ceded Friesland to the Normans, but murdered their king in a treacherous manner; and in revenge they fell upon France with increased fury. They besieged Paris, which was gallantly defended by Count Eudes, and were only induced to withdraw by a promise that a large sum of money should be paid to them; and that they should be allowed to winter in Burgundy, which they ravaged without mercy. The conduct of Charles excited so much indignation that he was deposed by a Diet. He died a few months after, in 888. Arnulph, a bastard son of Carloman, the late king of Bavaria, was elected king of Germany and Lorraine; Upper or Imperial Italy submitted alternately to Berengerius, duke of Friuli, and Guy, duke of Spoleto, both descended from Charlemagne; Count Eudes, and Charles the Simple, a minor, became kings of France; Count Rudolph erected the kingdom of Upper Burgundy, which comprehended nearly the present Switzerland and Franche Comté; and Lower Burgundy, or Arles, was confirmed to the son of Boson. Eudes died in 898, and Charles the Simple proved that he had but too well deserved his surname. Rollo, one of the most distinguished of the Norman chiefs, having made himself master of Rouen, and devastated the coast of Neustria, became so formidable, that in 911, Charles ceded to him a part of that kingdom with the title of the duke of Normandy. In the mean time Arnulph had been succeeded by his son Louis III. who died in 911, and Charles became rightful heir to the throne, but he was despised by the German princes, who elected Conrad, then duke of Bavaria; Berengerius finally established himself king of Imperial Italy; and *thus the dominions of Charlemagne were permanently dismembered.*

In that part of ITALY over which he reigned, Berengerius continued to hold his authority beyond the close of this period. Although the popes had greatly increased their authority abroad, they had fallen into contempt at home, and the pontifical seat was at the disposal of the Tuscan barons. VENICE successfully resisted the Arabians, and increased in wealth and importance.

During this period SWEDEN, DENMARK, and NORWAY, continued to be known only by the hordes of freebooters which they sent forth. They discovered and colonized Iceland, and sailed round the north of Europe to the White Sea. Though France and Germany suffered much from their incursions, Britain was still more oppressed by them.

Of the country which has since become RUSSIA, there is scarcely any thing to be related, but it is important to mark the history, however faint and obscure, of that empire which now occupies so large a portion of Europe and Asia. The Russians were of the Sclavonian race, and the first foundation of a kingdom among them seems to have been laid about the year 860, by Ruric, an enterprising leader of a body of Northmen, or Scandinavians, who occupied Novogorod, to which his successor added the town and district of Kiow. It is proper however to observe, that the real foundation of the Russian empire can scarcely be said to have been laid before the end of the fifteenth century. Until that time the frequent divisions of territory, the changes caused by wars, both internal and external, and the invasions of the Tartars, rendered its political condition as well as its boundaries extremely fluctuating and uncertain.

EGBERT, king of Wessex, united the seven Saxon kingdoms, A. D. 827, and became sovereign of ENGLAND, by which name the country was thenceforth known. Egbert died in 836. His son Ethelwolf suceeeded to the crown, and the incursions of the Danes becoming very frequent and destructive, he resigned to his bastard son, Athelstan, the kingdoms of Kent, Wessex, and Sussex. Ethelwolf's religious disposition induced him to grant to the church the tithes of all the produce of land within his dominions, to send his youngest son ALFRED, afterwards the Great, to Rome, and to visit that city himself. Athelstan died before his father, and Ethelwolf was obliged to resign the kingdom of Wessex to his eldest son Ethelbald, and to content himself with Kent, Essex, and Sussex. He survived the partition but two years, and left his dominions—first, to Ethelbert his second son, next, to Ethelred his third, and then to Alfred his youngest. On the death of Ethelbald in 860, Ethelbert again united the kingdoms. After a reign of six years, Ethelbert was succeeded by Ethelred. The Danes continued their incursions with various success. Northumberland had revolted against the successors of Egbert, and was taken possession of by the Danes, who invaded it under Ivar. East Anglia was next seized upon by those pirates, and Ethelred fell in 871, while defending Wessex. Alfred was then placed upon the throne, and he proved a monarch of extraordinary virtues and abilities. In the commencement of his reign he was defeated by the Danes, and compelled to assume a garb of a peasant, but an opportunity presenting itself, he again appeared before his countrymen, inspired them with confidence, visited the Danish camp in the dress of a harper, and by repeated acts of consummate prudence and valour, finally succeeded in conquering the barbarians. Nor was he content with mere victory. He converted the conquered into subjects, gave them Northumberland and East Anglia to settle in, and induced them to embrace Christianity. In order to prevent new disasters, he repaired the fortifications, formed a considerable and effective fleet, and cantoned regular troops in convenient positions. Tranquillity being thus happily restored, Alfred dedicated the rest of his reign to political objects worthy of his genius. He introduced the division of the country into counties, hundreds, and tithings, established schools, and founded, or at least repaired, the University of Oxford. He has been said to have instituted the trial by jury, but the truth seems to be that he only encouraged and regulated it. He died in 901, at the age of fifty-three.

During this period IRELAND was invaded by the Danes and Normans, who established themselves in a territory of considerable extent.

In SCOTLAND, the Picts were subjugated by Kenneth the Second, who is said to have united the whole country under one monarchy, A. D. 838.

SPAIN presents a scene of confusion, of petty wars and petty revolutions. The Spaniards being generally led by able princes, frequently defeated the Moors, and regained from them considerable territory. Ordogno, who reigned in the Asturias from 850 to 862, recovered Salamanca and Coria. In 864 the Moors re-took the Spanish Marche from the successors of Charlemagne, but the Christians taking advantage of the civil wars amongst the Moors, made many acquisitions of territory in that quarter, and Garcia Ximenes founded the kingdom of Navarre. The Moors, however, still retained three fourths of the Peninsula.

From the time of Charlemagne, the empire in the east was called the GREEK EMPIRE. Throughout this period it was harassed by internal and external warfare. Leo V. overcame the Bulgarians, and was assassinated

in 820. Michael II. succeeded, and during his reign the Saracens conquered the island of Crete, which has since been called Candia, from the building of the city of Chandax, or Candia. They also took possession of Sicily and of some of the neighbouring parts of Italy. Theophilus, the son of Michael, succeeded him in 829, and was distinguished by his learning and good government. He died in 842. His son Michael was then only six years old, and his mother Theodora governed. She restored the worship of images, and was banished by Michael, whose character proved dissolute and detestable. The only act throughout his reign mentioned as meriting approbation, is his associating Basilius, a person of eminent worth and talents, with himself in the empire. He was put to death in 867, and Basilius reigned alone. He achieved many victories over the Saracens, and died in 886. His reign is the æra of a schism which for ever divided the Greek and Latin churches. His son, Leo VI. succeeded him, and died in 911. Leo rendered his reign remarkable by publishing his Basilicæ, a compilation of laws in sixty books.

While these events were taking place, the power of THE CALIPHS was much circumscribed, although the influence of Mahometanism was greatly increased. Caliph Mamun was succeeded by his brother Motassem in 833, and it was during his reign that THE TURKS began to enter into the service of the Caliphs. Motassem purchased a large number of slaves in Turkistan, who were formed into a fine military body, and afterwards rose against their master. Their power increased rapidly, and in 861 they placed Mostain Billah, grand-son of Motassem, upon the throne. The Turks or Tartars inhabited the country eastward of the Caspian sea, as far as the Irtish. By degrees they were pressed further to the west by the more eastern nations, and Syria became Turkish. Achmet, a Turk, governor of Egypt, declared himself independent in 868. The Caliphat still continued with the house of the Abassides, but the Turks deposed and murdered the princes as they thought fit, and the authority of the Caliphs did not extend beyond the neighbourhood of Bagdad. The Edrisites, who ruled in Ceuta, Fez, and Mauretania were overcome in 908, by the Fatimites, the descendants of Mahomet's daughter Fatima; and in 912 the house of Aglab, which possessed Africa, from Egypt as far as Tunis, and besides conquering Sicily and Calabria, reduced Malta in 870, was also overthrown by the Fatimites.

During this period the history of INDIA presents nothing worthy of mention.

About the year 824 the peace of CHINA was disturbed, through the great influence possessed by the Eunuchs, who were afterwards overcome and massacred. In 845, all Christians who had settled in the empire were expelled. The confusion which reigned in the provinces enabled the Tartars to make successful incursions on the north and west.

A.D. 1100. PERIOD OF THE FIRST CRUSADE.

Engraved by Sidf. Hall, Bury St. Edmunds.

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FOURTEENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE FINAL DISSOLUTION OF THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE, A. D. 912, TO THE FIRST CRUSADE, A D. 1100.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
England	Crimson.
Scotland	Pink.
Denmark	Red.
Sweden	Brown.
Norway, with Iceland, and part of Greenland	Olive Brown.
France, with the Spanish Marche	Yellow.
Empire of Germany, embracing	
Germany	Purple.
Lorraine	
Burgundy	
Upper Italy, with its dependencies, and including as tributary the Obotriti, Wilzi, Pomerani, Bohemia, Poland, and Silesia	
Hungary, with Transylvania, Croatia, part of Dalmatia, and part of Esclavonia	Orange.
Lower Italy, and Sicily	Lilac.
Christian Spain	Light Blue.
Principality of Portugal	Dark Blue.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
Greek Empire, embracing	
Thrace	Yellow Green.
Macedonia	
Bulgaria	
Servia	
Bosnia	
Lower Esclavonia	
Part of Asia Minor	
Caffa &c.	
Mahometan States, embracing	
Northern Africa	Green.
Egypt	
Arabia	
Syria	
Part of Asia Minor	
Armenia	
Persia	
Bucharia	
Karasm	
Turkistan	
Part of India	
Part of Spain	
Hindoostan	Grey.
China	Light Brown.

IN order to preserve clearness it will be necessary to follow, as nearly as may be, the arrangement observed in the preceding period. The events which have been mentioned, and the inordinate power of the great lords, had reduced the strength, and destroyed the peace, of FRANCE. In the succeeding reigns, if such a word may be applied to the limited and uncertain authority of Robert, Rudolph, Louis IV, and Louis V, the influence of the crown sustained further diminution, and the incursions of the Normans and Hungarians added to the miseries of the country. *With Louis V. ended the dynasty of Charlemagne, A. D.* 987. He was succeeded by Hugh CAPET, the son of a powerful count of that name, who, without the title of king, had possessed almost regal authority. Adapting his government to the situation of affairs, he required nothing more than homage from the great lords, resided at Paris, and by his prudence and management established a new family upon the throne without the violence and bloodshed by which such changes are often accompanied. He died in 996, and his son Robert succeeded him. Robert had married Bertha, his fourth cousin, and although the marriage had been authorized by several bishops, Gregory V. annulled it, and excommunicated the parties. Robert wanted strength of mind and influence to resist this monstrous presumption of an arrogant priest, and in the end, being deserted by every one but his queen and two menial servants, he was compelled to bend to the papal authority and divorce his wife. Robert afterwards refused the crown of Italy with the empire, and died in 1031. His son Henry I. succeeded to the throne; and bestowed the duchy of Burgundy on his brother Robert. Such was the dread of papal censures that the king is said, in order to avoid an unlawful marriage, to have been induced to seek a wife in the family of Jaroslaus, or Yaroslaf, czar or prince of Russia. During this reign the court of Rome enjoined an abstinence from war, and endeavoured to give additional weight to its commands by proclaiming what is styled the Peace and Truce of God. The dreadful anarchy which pervaded the kingdom had been occasioned, in a great measure, by the insolence and wickedness of the popes, and their pretended remedy only increased the evil. Henry died in 1060, and the length of his reign contributed to the more firm establishment of royal authority. His son Philip I, a minor, succeeded him, and Baldwin, earl of Flanders, was his guardian. When Philip became of age, his treacherous

and debauched character increased the power of the popes and subjected him to excommunication. He died in 1108. The most remarkable event of his reign was the commencement of the CRUSADES, or Holy Wars for the rescuing of Jerusalem from the Saracens. It had been for some time a favourite project of the court of Rome, and an enthusiastic pilgrim from Jerusalem, called Peter the Hermit, represented the sufferings of the Christians in the Holy City as so excessive, that *a crusade was finally resolved on by a council held at Clermont in* 1095, the pope, Urban II, exclaiming 'It is the will of God!' The spirit of the times accorded with the design; the red cross was every where displayed, and thousands flocked around it. Peter the Hermit set out with about 80,000 men, and nearly the whole of them were destroyed in Hungary, Bulgaria, and other countries, on their way to Constantinople. A second army under a German priest suffered the same fate. The holy army itself consisted of about 1,300,000 persons; bishops, priests, monks, women and children were all enlisted in it. It assembled at Constantinople, and made some conquests, which will be mentioned hereafter.

Conrad I. reigned in GERMANY, amidst repeated revolts, the mischiefs of which were aggravated by incursions of the Hungarians, until 918, when he died, and was succeeded by Henry duke of Saxony, surnamed the Fowler, a brave and able monarch. He gave peace and union to the empire; defeated the Hungarians, the Sclavonians, and the Danes; subdued the Dalmatians, Bohemians, and Obotrites; and added Lorraine to the empire. He died in 936. Henry built many towns and fortresses, particularly on the Havel and Elbe; and hence were formed the Margravates, Misnia, North Saxony, and Sleswick. His son, Otho the Great, succeeded him. Like his father he maintained his authority and promoted the good of the empire; he repulsed the Danes, the Sclavonians, and the Hungarians; and fortified the frontiers of his kingdom against invasion. In the right of his second wife Adelaide he became king of Italy; and in 962, after overcoming Berengerius, he was proclaimed emperor of the Romans. He died in 973, and was succeeded by his son Otho II. The Sclavonians, having invaded Saxony, were repelled; and Otho afterwards contended successfully against a faction raised by Crescentius in Rome, and carried his arms into Lower Italy. He was mortally wounded and died in 983. In 980 he ceded part of Lorraine to France. His son, Otho III, was his successor, and his title was acknowledged throughout the empire except at Rome, which revolted under Crescentius, who expelled pope Gregory V. and made another under the name of John XVI. Otho being a minor his mother and grandmother disputed for the authority, and Germany was afflicted with a tempestuous regency. In 998, however, Otho, having assumed the reins of government, destroyed Crescentius and the anti-pope, and published a decree depriving the pope of all power in the election of the emperor, but authorising him to make the proclamation at Rome, and to perform the ceremony of crowning, should the emperor think fit to visit Italy. Otho next established duke Boleslaus in Poland, who held his possessions as a fief of the empire. He died in 1002, after a successful reign. Henry duke of Bavaria was elected to the empire and became celebrated for his generosity, justice, and moderation. He drove Boleslaus out of Bohemia, which he had invaded, and made him pay tribute for Poland and Moravia, quelled insurrections in Italy and other parts of his dominions, and died in 1024, leaving the whole empire in peace. Conrad II, surnamed the Salic, succeeded him. He not only maintained order in the empire, but reduced Hungary to submission, and acquired possession of Upper Burgundy. He was succeeded in 1039 by his son Henry III, who, amidst famine and severe distresses, preserved his power in the empire. In his reign there were at one time no less than three persons claiming to be popes; they were superseded by Clement II. Henry died in 1056, and was succeeded by Henry IV. then an infant. The regency was disturbed by civil wars; and although Henry soon after he began to reign displayed his vigour and ability in the conquest of Saxony, he was obliged to submit to the arrogant pretensions of Pope Gregory VII., and acknowledge his superior authority. Even this submission, however, was not enough to satisfy Gregory. Through his intrigues Rudolph was elected emperor in Germany; while, on the other hand, Henry found support in Italy, and caused Clement III. to be chosen pope, whom he ultimately succeeded in establishing, after defeating Rudolph. He afterwards suppressed insurrections in different parts of his dominions, but was deposed in 1105, through the treachery of his own son, instigated by pope Pascal II. He escaped from prison, and once more appeared in arms, but died in 1106.

To what is elsewhere said of ITALY in our present period, it is only necessary to add, that it suffered severely, both from internal dissensions and from the incursions of the Hungarians and other predatory nations; and that the Normans, under Tancred and Guiscard laid the foundations of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

The history of SWEDEN during this period is uncertain and unsatisfactory; it appears that part of Gothland was added to it, and that its kings laboured strenuously for the promulgation of Christianity.

The DANES maintained their disposition for foreign conquest, as will be seen from the history of England. Christianity was fully established in Denmark and thence spread to the neighbouring nations.

For some short period NORWAY was united to Denmark, but in 1036, it was again ruled by its own monarchs. Some mal-contents who had emigrated to Iceland from their native land, discovered Greenland in 983, and with that discovery the spirit for maritime adventure seems to have expired in the north.

In the Twelfth Period the history of POLAND was noticed, and some alterations having taken place in that country, it is now necessary to recur to it. In 999 Boleslaus, as already mentioned, was invested with royalty by Otho III. He rendered a large empire tributary, and extended Christianity. Boleslaus II. coming in collision with Gregory VII. was deposed by that despotic pontiff. Boleslaus III. was the next king. Poland was still tributary to the empire.

Towards the close of the tenth century, HUNGARY, which had hitherto been inhabited by predatory tribes, assumed the character of a regular state, although civilization had made little progress. Before the end of the eleventh century Transylvania, Croatia, and part of Dalmatia, were annexed to it.

A division of territory amongst the successors of Rurik prolonged the barbarism of RUSSIA, but the separate states were reunited by Wladimir, who, towards the close of the tenth century, on his embracing Christianity, received the daughter of the Greek emperor Basilius in marriage; and the Patriarch of Constantinople appointed the Russian metropolitan. Wladimir by his will, divided his kingdom, and anarchy and confusion in consequence prevailed; which were suspended during the reign of Yaroslaf, but recommenced after his death in 1054, and continued to the close of this period; so that at that time no general government or fixed boundaries existed.

On the death of Alfred his son Edward the Elder ascended the throne of ENGLAND, and his whole reign was passed in conflicts with the Danes and Normans, and in attempts to subdue the Welsh. In 924 Athelstan succeeded him. He was an able prince; he repelled his enemies, subjugated Northumberland, became nominal lord of Scotland and Wales, and caused the Holy Scriptures to be translated into Saxon. Athelstan was succeeded by Edmund in 941, who was killed by a robber in 946,

when his brother Edred ascended the throne. He maintained his supremacy over Scotland, appointed an English governor over Northumberland, showed great favour to Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, and died after reigning ten years. Edwy son of Edmund succeeded Edred, and after a reign of little more than four years, which was rendered miserable by the turbulence of Dunstan and his confederate monks, he died, and his brother Edgar ascended the throne. By extraordinary preparations, Edgar induced the kings of Ireland, Wales, and the Isle of Man, to swear allegiance to him. He made Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, and the monks were favoured greatly, to the prejudice of the secular clergy. He died in 975, and was succeeded by his son Edward the Martyr, who, after reigning four years, was assassinated by his mother-in-law, who procured the elevation of her son Ethelred, surnamed the Unready. The monks now sank into discredit, and their influence was further lessened by the death of Dunstan. The Danes renewed their invasions, and Ethelred proved cruel and cowardly. He levied a tax which was called Danegeld, from the proceeds being paid to the invading Danes, on condition that their army should leave the kingdom. He then massacred many of the Danes who were living peaceably in his dominions. Thus provoked, those formidable enemies renewed their invasion; Ethelred was driven into Normandy, and *Sweyn, king of Denmark was crowned king of England,* and dying in the following year, 1014, was succeeded by Canute the Great. On the death of Ethelred, his son Edmund Ironsides, assumed the title of king, and after valiantly contending for his right, was murdered in 1017, and Canute remained in possession of the crown. Canute died in 1035, and bequeathed the English throne to his son Harold, but he died in 1040, and was succeeded by Hardicanute, another son of Canute, who lived only two years afterwards. Through the influence of Earl Goodwin, Edward the Confessor, son of Ethelred the Unready, was elevated to the throne; *and thus the Danish power in England was extinguished.* Previously to this reign the West-Saxon, Mercian, and Danish laws were observed in different parts of England, but Edward reduced the whole to one body, which is known by his name. The other principal events of his reign were his sending Siward with an army to Scotland, where he assisted in dethroning Macbeth and giving the crown to Malcolm; and the building of Westminster Abbey, at the dedication of which he was taken ill and died in 1066. Harold, the son of Earl Goodwin, was acknowledged king; but William, Duke of Normandy, countenanced by the Pope, landed with an army of 60,000 men at Pevensey in Sussex, and advanced as far as Hastings. Harold fought with the invaders where the town of Battle now stands, and being killed, *in* 1066 *the crown of England was transferred from the Saxon to the Norman line.* William the Conqueror rewarded his Norman followers at the expence of his new subjects, whose lands he seized every opportunity of confiscating, and whom he carefully excluded from public offices. He revived the odious tax of Danegeld and established the degrading regulation of the Curfew. Insurrections provoked by his oppression served only to confirm his power. Although he sought the concurrence of the Pope, he paid but little attention to the Papal authority after he was crowned. He permitted the levying of Peter-pence, but denied the supremacy of Rome. In 1076 he was called to Normandy by the insurrection of his son Robert, who was secretly supported by the king of France. William was successful, and afterwards turning his arms against France itself, he died in 1087, partly from disease, and partly from an accident. One of the most remarkable occurrences of his reign is the compilation of the Doomsday book. William Rufus, the Conqueror's second son, next ascended the throne of England; and on his brother Robert's going to the holy wars he took possession of Normandy. He maintained his authority at home and abroad; built Westminster Hall, and the Tower of London, and was accidentally slain whilst hunting in the New Forest in 1100. He was succeeded by his younger brother Henry, who abolished the Curfew, and further conciliated the Saxons by granting them a favourable charter, and by marrying Matilda the niece of Edgar Atheling, grandson of Edmund Ironsides. He took possession of Normandy, 1106; defeated the French, and imprisoned his brother Robert until that prince's death. The history of SCOTLAND and IRELAND presents a scene of almost uninterrupted confusion during this period, without any events of marked importance in their nature or consequence.

In SPAIN, warfare was carried on, with only occasional intermissions, between the Moors and the Spaniards, and although the former received frequent reinforcements from Africa, the latter succeeded in adding to their territories, Talavera della Reyna, Leon, Madrid, Lisbon, Toledo, which is said to have had 300,000 inhabitants, and some other places. The Moors were famed for science, romantic gallantry, agriculture, and commerce, and the library at Cordova was celebrated throughout Europe; while the Christians, spurred on by the enthusiasm of religion, fought with undaunted courage. The passion for chivalry was carried to its height by the renowned Cid. At the close of this period the territories of the Moors were divided into a number of independent principalities; and thus the strength of the kingdom of Cordova was much diminished. The kingdoms of Arragon and Castille had been formed and grown powerful under the Spanish Princes, notwithstanding the frequent partitions which had taken place, and, in 1109, part of the present Portugal became an independent principality.

During the progress of this period the GREEK EMPIRE underwent a variety of changes, but at the close it appears neither to have acquired much increase, nor suffered much diminution of power. There was a rapid succession of emperors, most of whom were murdered or deposed until the family of the Comneni ascended the throne in 1057, and retained their power beyond the present period. Alexis I., the sixth Emperor of that family, reigned from 1081 to 1118. In his reign the empire lost what yet remained to it of the Exarchate in Italy, and was greatly harassed by wars and incursions.

The EMPIRE OF THE CALIPHS had already greatly declined, and in 934 they became mere ecclesiastical regents, in consequence of the institution of the office of Emir-al-Orma, or Prime Minister, which was held by a Turk. The power of the TURKS rapidly increased, and they disposed of the Caliphat as they thought proper, so that the mighty power of the Arabians was as brief as it was brilliant. About the year 1000, Sultan MAHMOUD of Ghazna, made himself sovereign of Khorassan, and conquered a great empire on the Oxus, Ganges, and Indus. In 1037 Sultan Masoud, the son of Mahmoud, was expelled from Khorassan by Togrul Beg, leader of the SELJUKS, who was crowned Sultan of Bagdad, and had his seat of government at Ispahan. He was succeeded by his nephew Alp Arslan, in 1063, who ruled between the Gihon and the Tigris. He died in 1072, and his son Malek Schah Jalaluddin ascended the throne, and died in 1092, after having conquered Syria and Asia Minor and eastward as far as China. His successor was his son Barkiaroc. He was defeated by the crusaders at Antioch, and the empire was divided into Iran, Roum or Iconium, and other states, the most powerful being in Syria. In 1099 the Christian crusaders became masters of Jerusalem, of which Godfrey of Bouillon was elected king, and took Antioch and Edessa. It was then that the monastic and military orders of the Hospitallers, the Templars, and the Teutonic knights were instituted, to protect pilgrims from the attacks of the Turks. The Fatimites maintained their power in Africa, Syria, and Palestine, their seat of empire being Cairo. In about 1050 Abu Beker founded the state of Morocco, and his successor Yusef built the city of that name, and made some conquests in the neighbourhood

of Tunis and Algiers. In addition to these occurrences it is proper to mention that the sect of Assassins, whose chief was commonly called the old man of the mountains, was established in the mountains of Persia Proper in 1090.

We have already seen that INDIA was exposed to the invasion of the Mahometans. The native princes combined, but they were unable to resist the Sultan Mahmoud of Ghazna. Delhi and Canouge fell under his power, and his dominion extended from Guzzerat to beyond the Ganges. His posterity maintained the possessions he had acquired until the close of this period, notwithstanding that many efforts were made by the native princes and the Brahmins to free themselves from subjection.

In CHINA the Tartars continued their invasions, and we shall have to speak of their progress in our next period.

A.D. 1294. EXHIBITING THE EMPIRE OF KUBLAI KHAN.

London, Published Augt. 1829, by Seeley & Burnside, 169, Fleet Street.

Engraved by Sidt. Hall, Bury St.t Bloomsb.y

FIFTEENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE CRUSADES, A. D. 1100, TO THE DIVISION OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE ON THE DEATH OF KUBLAI, A. D. 1294.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
England, Wales, Ireland, and Normandy	Crimson.
Scotland	Pink.
Denmark	Red.
Sweden	Brown.
Norway, with Iceland, and part of Greenland	Olive Brown.
France, with Navarre	Yellow.
Empire of Germany, embracing	
Germany	Purple.
Lorraine	
Burgundy	
Upper Italy	
Hungary, with Transylvania, Esclavonia, Bosnia, Servia, part of Dalmatia, and part of Croatia	Orange.
Poland and Silesia	Chocolate.
Italy, (Venice, Rome, Naples, &c.)	Lilac.
Christian Spain	Light Blue.
Kingdom of Portugal and Algarve	Dark Blue.
Greek Empire, embracing	
Thrace	Yellow Green.
Macedonia	
Part of Greece	
Part of Asia Minor	

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
Mahometan and Turkish States	
Northern Africa	Green.
Part of Spain	
Egypt	
Arabia	
Syria	
Part of Asia Minor	
Tartar Empire	
Armenia	Olive Green.
Persia	
Bucharia	
Karasm	
Turkistan	
Tartary, Mongolia and Mandshuria	
Kaptschak	
Part of India	
China	
Hindoostan	Grey.

DURING our present period, notwithstanding the gross superstition which prevailed, the undefined state of regal power and popular rights, and the many atrocious acts which were perpetrated, Europe was fast emerging from the state of barbarism in which it had been sunk for several centuries. In England, France, Germany, and Italy, the Commons, or third estate, began to be recognized and respected; industry and commerce were acquiring their due weight and estimation, and through the study of jurisprudence, the rights of persons and of property were better understood. Nor were science, literature, and the arts altogether neglected. In Spain, the Moors diffused considerable knowledge, and as the wealth of Italy was increased by commerce, her inhabitants acquired a taste for splendour, luxury, and refined amusements; and in that country, as well as in France and England, many schools and universities were founded.

Louis VI. succeeded his father Philip on the throne of FRANCE, and reigned until 1137, when he died. He was an able prince, and with the assistance of an excellent minister, Sugur, he successfully opposed the immoderate pretensions of the great lords. The commons preferring the dominion of the king to that of the nobles, were protected by Sugur; Villainage was abolished, and thus the third estate rose in France. Louis, however, was engaged in wars with Germany and England, which only harassed and distressed the powers involved in them. Louis VII. was less fortunate than his father. Although by marriage he added Aquitaine and Guienne to his dominions, he was obliged to have recourse to force to repress the nobility, and even the commons revolted. He had scarcely chastised them when he became embroiled with the pope. An obnoxious bishop was elected by the Chapter of Bourges, and Louis commanded them to elect another; but pope Innocent II. confirmed their choice, and a civil war was the result. The celebrated St. Bernard, abbot of Clairvaux, took part with the court of Rome, and Louis became so enraged at the opposition, that on taking Nitri, he set fire to it, and 1300 persons perished who had taken refuge in the church. His anger was succeeded by remorse, and he joined the second crusade which St. Bernard was then preaching up. The French army was immense and was commanded by Louis himself. Its destruction however was speedy, and in 1149 Louis returned almost without a train. In 1152 the wise and virtuous Sugur died, and the king soon repudiated his queen, restoring to her the provinces she brought him at her marriage. Within six weeks she

was united to Henry, heir presumptive to the throne of England, duke of Normandy, and count of Anjou and Maine. To check the growing power of Henry, Louis entered into a variety of intrigues, but the former becoming king of England in 1154, maintained his possessions in France, and defeated his enemies. Louis VII. died in 1180, and his son Philip II. succeeded to the crown. He commenced his reign with vigour. In 1182 he expelled the Jews, and two years after paved and embellished Paris. In 1190 he joined Richard I. of England in a crusade against Saladin X. but after some successes achieved by a great sacrifice of lives, he returned to France. Taking advantage of the treacherous imprisonment of Richard, who was seized by the duke of Austria when on his return from the Holy Land, and given up to Henry VI. of Germany, he attacked his dominions; but Richard was afterwards ransomed and maintained his rights till his death. In 1199 Philip obtained Artois, and all the country along the Lys, by marriage. Philip also defended the right of Arthur, the heir to the English throne; and on his being murdered by John in 1203, the French monarch took advantage of that opportunity for declaring war against England. He seized upon Touraine, Anjou, and Maine, in 1203, and upon Normandy in 1205. Not content with this increase of territory, Philip assisted his son in invading England. The French were repulsed, and their monarch was excommunicated by the pope. Philip II. took part in the crusades against Constantinople in 1202, and against the Albigenses in 1209, and died in 1223. He was a prince of vigour and ability, and greatly improved the condition of France. He encouraged learning by protecting the university of Paris, and gave security to commerce by permitting the increase of corporations. His son Louis VIII. reigned only three years, but during that time he still further diminished the possessions of England in France, and took Avignon from the Albigenses. Louis IX. was but twelve years old when his father died, and the queen-mother governed till he became of age. He proved an able monarch, and although so devoted to the superstition of the time as to acquire the title of *Saint*, he restrained the clergy as well as the barons. In 1245 he obtained Provence by marriage, and three years after he took the cross and landed in Egypt. At first he was successful, but in 1250 he was taken prisoner, and did not obtain his liberty without paying a large ransom. On his return to France, he became celebrated for his justice, and a code of laws, bearing the title of the Establishment of St. Louis. For some trifling concessions England renounced all claim to Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, Maine, and Poictou; and in 1261 Louis obtained possession of Burgundy. In 1266 he made his brother Charles of Anjou, king of Sicily. He undertook another crusade against the Mahometans in 1270, and after taking Carthage was carried off by the plague during the same year. His son Philip III. immediately assumed the regal title; and after subjecting the king of Tunis to his uncle Charles of Sicily, he returned to France. Philip ceded the country of Agenois to England, became possessed of Navarre by marrying his son to its heiress, and after making a fruitless attempt on Arragon, died in 1285. His eldest son Philip IV. was crowned at Rheims, and in right of his wife possessed Navarre, Champagne, and Brie. Edward I. of England demanded and received the country of Saintonge, and in 1295 war was declared between France and England.

Having thus pursued the history of France to the close of this period, we must turn our attention to that of GERMANY. The impious cruelty of Henry V. persecuted his father to his death, and even his dead body was insulted; while the son resisted the pope on the point respecting investitures, which had been the principal pretence for the dethronement of the father. At length after excommunication, wars, the setting up of anti-popes, and the misery consequent upon such contentions, the question was settled. It was agreed that the spiritual investiture should be performed by the pope with the ring and staff, and the investiture of temporalities by the emperor with the sceptre. Henry V. died in 1125; when, notwithstanding the claims of his nephews the dukes of Suabia and Franconia, Lothaire II. count of Saxe Supplenbourg, was elected to the empire. The Roman church was still full of dissension, and through the influence of St. Bernard, the emperor supported pope Innocent II. against his rival Anaclete. Lothaire died in 1137, and Conrad III. of Suabia, was unanimously elected to the empire. He overcame Henry the Proud, duke of Saxony and Bavaria, whose brother made war against him. The family name of Henry was Welf or Guelf, and Frederic duke of Suabia, who commanded the imperial army was born at the village of Hieghibelin. Hence originated the names afterwards so celebrated of Guelfs and Ghibelins. Conrad joined the crusade against the Saracens in 1147, in which he reaped neither honour nor advantage, and died in 1152. During the reign of Lothaire the laws of Justinian had been partially introduced into Germany, in that of Conrad they were fully adopted, and through them the emperor made a vain claim to the whole of the former Roman dominions. Frederic I. surnamed Barbarossa, a prince of an elevated genius, was next elected emperor. He maintained order at home, and raised Bohemia into a kingdom. He gave Bavaria to Henry the Lion, son of Henry the Proud, and created Austria a dukedom. He made six expeditions into Italy, in the course of which he took and razed Milan, and had its very soil ploughed up and strewed with salt. He opposed anti-popes to Alexander III. In his attempts to support his authority in Italy, he was successfully resisted by the Lombard league, which in 1168 comprehended Milan, Mantua, Brescia, and fifteen other towns. Having however, gained a victory in 1177, he made peace with the pope, and the rebellious cities submitted. Henry the Lion, through his intrigues, was deprived of all his territories except Brunswick and Lunenburg; and in order to reduce the power of Otho, who had taken possession of Bavaria, the emperor declared Ratisbon and Lubeck free cities, erected Stiria into a duchy, and otherwise diminished his authority. In 1186, Frederic's son Henry, married the heiress of Sicily. The emperor joined in a crusade against the Mahometans in 1187, and died during the following year near Seleucia, from bathing in the Cydnus. His son Henry VI. became emperor. He took possession of Naples and Sicily, sent forth another army of crusaders, and died in 1198, at Messina, whither he had gone to quell an insurrection of the Sicilians. The imperial crown of right belonged to Frederic, the son of Henry VI. who was a minor, and his uncle Philip was regent with the title of king of the Romans. Otho IV. was elected emperor in opposition to him, but was overcome, and Philip obtained the imperial dignity, and was about to settle his differences with pope Innocent III. who had been his chief opponent, when he was assassinated, A. D. 1208. Even in the midst of this struggle another crusade was carried into effect, under Baldwin count of Flanders. Otho then resumed his authority, but having offended pope Innocent III. by attacking Frederic, king of Naples and Sicily, he was excommunicated and ultimately deposed in 1214, when Frederic II. was declared emperor. In 1220 his son Henry was made king of the Romans, but having afterwards rebelled twice, he was thrown into confinement and died. Although Frederic was a monarch of extraordinary courage, wisdom, and vigour, his reign was marked by almost uninterrupted violence and disorder, in consequence of the excessive influence and arrogance of the popes. It was in this reign that the contest between the factions of the Guelfs and Ghibelins was at its height, and innumerable acts of atrocity were perpetrated. Frederic fought with success against his enemies, until the latter part of his reign, when his good fortune appeared to be deserting him. He died A. D. 1230. Conrad, the son of Frederic II. died in 1254,

and William, count of Holland, assumed the imperial ensigns, but he was without power. Several commercial cities associated together for their mutual protection, and this is probably the true epoch of the union of the Hanse towns. Richard of Cornwall, and Alphonso X. of Castile, at different periods were styled emperor, and there were other competitors, but no one was established in authority until 1273, when RODOLPH, count of Hapsburg, was raised to the throne, and his coronation attended by all the German princes. He overcame the king of Bohemia, who declared war against him, and established his authority in Germany. He made his eldest son Albert, duke of Austria, and invested another son, Rodolph, with the county of Suabia. In Italy he was less powerful than in Germany. Rodolph died in 1291, and after an interregnum of nine months Adolph of Nassau was elected emperor. After a short reign which was marked by a merciless persecution of the Jews and continual contests with the nobles, Adolph was first deposed in favor of Albert, son of Rodolph, and afterwards slain in battle in 1298. Albert was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and by a marriage of his eldest son with Blanche of France, and other arrangements, he added to the importance of the house of Hapsburg. This reign however properly belongs to the next period.

The history of ITALY presents the remarkable scene of commerce flourishing in the midst of insecurity, rapine, treachery, and confusion. Of the court of Rome enough has been said. It preached up crusade upon crusade till Europe was drained and enfeebled; it added extortion to extortion till its own ministers grew weary of the burden; and it thundered forth excommunications and interdicts till both kings and subjects questioned its authority. The usurpations of Innocent III. were monstrous, and it was under that arrogant pontiff that the Inquisition was instituted, in 1229. The papal dominions were a prey to tumultuary contests, and the greater part of Upper Italy was distracted by the Guelfs and the Ghibelins. Still many of the cities flourished. Venice was the chief city of the Lombard league in 1180, the ceremony of the marriage with the Adriatic was introduced in 1173, and in 1204, Constantinople being taken by the crusaders, Venice acquired Candia and some other islands, and the Morea. It also monopolised the East India trade; but towards the close of the thirteenth century it suffered some reverses. Genoa likewise attained great commercial celebrity, and became possessed of Marseilles, Caffa, Asof, and Elba. Tuscany became independent in 1266, and Lucca flourished through her silk manufactures. Lower Italy and Sicily were claimed and conquered by Henry VI. of Germany, and continued under the house of Suabia until 1265, when Charles of Anjou was placed upon the throne as the vassal of the pope. His cruelties soon lost him Sicily. In 1282 the massacre of all the French in Sicily, called the Sicilian Vespers, took place; and Peter of Arragon became king of that island, while the crown of Naples was retained by Charles.

It would be an utter waste of time to name the different princes who ruled in Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Poland, Russia, Hungary and Prussia, during this period. Those countries were continually the scene of bloodshed, rapine, weakness and treachery. The power of the church became immense in all of them except Russia, and it was used for the most nefarious purposes.

In 1160 SWEDEN and Gothland were first united under one king, and between 1155 and 1248 Finland was converted and added to Sweden. East Bothnia was converted and conquered in 1248; Stockholm was founded in 1254, and Lapland was reduced during the latter part of the 13th century.

The state of DENMARK was more fluctuating. Considerable conquests were at one time effected, but before the close of this period they had been all lost. Copenhagen was founded towards the close of the 12th century.

Haco V. reigned in NORWAY from 1217 to 1263; he promoted commerce and called a general assembly of the states. The Hebrides were ceded to Scotland, in 1263, for an annual tribute.

POLAND was greatly weakened on the death of Boleslaus III. in 1138, who divided the kingdom into Great Poland, Little Poland, Silesia, (Lusatia included) and Masovia. Cracow remained the chief city; but internal dissensions still further weakened the divided kingdom, and during the greater part of the 13th century it was a prey to the ravages of the Tartars. In 1289 Poland ceased to be tributary to Germany.

During the 12th century the wars between the RUSSIANS and the Poles and Lithuanians were continual, and in the 13th century Russia was overrun by a multitude of Tartars, under Battu Khan, (grandson of Jenghis-Khan) who conquered and desolated the country. In addition to that misery, there were constant feuds among the grand dukes as to the succession; and the country was exposed to the inroads of the brothers of the short sword, and of the Teutonic knights. The Lithuanians not only founded Kiernow and successively conquered Braclaw, Nougorodek, Grodno and other places in Russia, but seem to have successfully resisted the Tartars. Their chief, Rignold, took the title of grand duke in 1230.

HUNGARY was reduced to tranquillity by Bela III, who reigned towards the close of the 12th century. He conquered Bulgaria, and in 1196 Servia was annexed to the kingdom. In 1234 the whole nation was free from taxes, and the present Gallicia and Lodomiria were subjected; but in 1241 the Tartars commenced their ravages, and reduced the country to a wilderness. It was cultivated afterwards by Italians and Germans, and ceased to be tributary to the emperor of Germany in 1285, when the Tartars renewed their ravages.

The divisions in Poland induced the PRUSSIANS to make irruptions into parts of that country, especially Masovia; but the Teutonic knights being invited from Venice in 1231, they conquered all Prussia between that year and 1283. Thorn was founded in 1231, Culm in 1232, Elbing in 1239, and Königsberg in 1255. The Prussians were almost extirpated, and the country repeopled by Germans and Poles. It was under the Teutonic order, and Marienburg was the seat of the grand Master.

Although ENGLAND was oppressed by many evils during this period, it will be seen that the nation acquired some of the noblest privileges which it now possesses. Henry I. leaving no legitimate offspring but Matilda, the widow of the emperor Henry V, whose hand he afterwards bestowed on Geoffry *Plantagenet*, Count of Anjou, induced the great vassals of the crown, among whom was his nephew, Stephen earl of Bologne, to acknowledge his daughter Matilda the heiress to all his dominions. Henry died in 1135, and his nephew Stephen forgot his promised obedience to Matilda. An obstinate and sanguinary civil war was the consequence, by which the power of the barons was increased, and the whole kingdom involved in confusion and misery. Matilda retired from the contest into Normandy, but her son Henry soon afterwards renewed it; and it was ultimately arranged that Stephen should reign during his life, and that *Henry, the first king of the line of Plantagenet*, should be his successor. Stephen died in 1154, and Henry II. proved a great monarch. He renewed the charter of Henry I, reduced the fortified castles, and distributed justice through the country. Nor was he less successful in supporting his dignity abroad; for besides maintaining his possessions, he formed some honorable and profitable alliances. After restoring peace he endeavoured to restrain the gross encroachments of the clergy. To effect his purpose he raised his chancellor, Thomas a Becket, to the see of Canterbury. Becket was a man of great abilities and resolution: he had hitherto had no will but

that of his master; but no sooner was he installed in his new dignity than he abandoned luxury and splendour, and by observing a most rigid life acquired the reputation of a saint. The king wished to try a priest guilty of murder by the ordinary tribunals, and Becket objected. This gave rise to the articles of Clarendon, sixteen in number, which greatly limited the power and privileges claimed by the clergy. They were at first agreed to by Becket, but on their being rejected by the pope he also declared against them. The quarrel was now violent: Becket fled to France, and excommunicated the king; but after some time tranquillity was apparently restored. Becket, however, no sooner returned to England than he excommunicated the archbishop of York, for having consecrated the eldest son of Henry; and such was the violence of his proceedings, that they irritated Henry into a hasty expression of anger, which was interpreted by some of his attendants into an intimation of his desire that Becket should be put to death, and he was soon afterwards murdered in Canterbury cathedral. It was only by distributing presents at Rome, and by other acts of submission, that Henry escaped excommunication and an interdict with which he was threatened. *He reduced Wales to submission* 1157, *and took possession of Ireland in* 1172. He introduced the administering of justice by circuits; and after suffering much domestic misery from repeated rebellions by his sons, he died, possessed of great territory and power, in 1189. He was succeeded by his son Richard I, Cœur de Lion, who exhausted his treasures by engaging in a crusade, and to raise supplies sold his claim to the sovereignty of Scotland for 10,000 marks. He commanded at the siege of Acre, which was taken from the infidels, was shipwrecked on his return, treacherously confined by the emperor of Germany and king of France, and ultimately obliged to purchase his freedom. In addition to that injury, the king of France had instigated John, Richard's brother, to rebel during his absence. Richard, on acquiring his liberty, returned to England, and resumed his authority. He then commenced a war with France, and fell, in attacking an unimportant fortress, in 1199. John became king. In 1203 he murdered his nephew Arthur, who was heir to the throne, and immediately after became embroiled with the clergy and the pope. In 1212 Innocent III. placed England under an interdict, and proceeded to confer it upon Philip of France, who, thus encouraged, prepared to invade it, A. D. 1213, when John was induced, by his fears, to declare himself a feudatory of the church of Rome, and to swear fealty to the pope. The country, however, was indignant at his vices, and a general revolt ensued. The barons compelled John to sign MAGNA CHARTA in 1215; but finding him still treacherous, many of the nobility invited over Louis the son of Philip of France; and England was rapidly surrendering to the arms of that prince, when, in 1216, the death of John stopped his successful career. His son, Henry, was crowned; and the English uniting under the earl of Pembroke, as lord protector, the French were expelled the following year. The reign of Henry III, an imbecile prince, was long and disastrous. He was led to infringe upon the great charter, suffered the court of Rome to drain the kingdom by its infamous extortions, and encouraged foreigners to such an extent as to cause a civil war. In 1258 the Provisions of Oxford were agreed to, which restrained the royal power within narrow limits; but the king soon violated them, and the barons had again to unite for their protection. The earl of Leicester was their leader, and after defeating the royalists and gaining possession of the king's person, he originated the House of Commons, in its present form, by assembling not only knights from the shires, but deputies from the boroughs in parliament, which then began to be frequently summoned. Edward, the son of Henry, at length freed his father, and Leicester was killed in battle. By the wisdom of Edward, peace was restored, and Henry III. reigned in tranquillity until 1272, when he died. At that time Edward was absent on a crusade to the Holy Land, but he soon returned to England, and took possession of the throne. He gave permanency to the House of Commons, *and finally united Wales to England.* He enacted the celebrated statute of mortmain, and after being some time absent in France returned to redress abuses. The Jews having grossly adulterated and clipped the money, and committed other unjustifiable acts, were banished by act of parliament. He took advantage of a dispute respecting the succession in Scotland, to interfere in its affairs, and placed John Baliol on the throne in preference to Robert Bruce; but on Baliol's leaguing with France, Edward conquered his kingdom, made him captive, and in 1296 removed the coronation stone and regalia from Scone to Westminster. In the following year the Scots rose under William Wallace, but were defeated at Falkirk by Edward, and Wallace being made prisoner was executed in 1305. In the next year Robert Bruce, grandson of the Bruce already mentioned, headed a revolt and was crowned. Edward prepared to crush his new adversary, but died in Cumberland in 1307, while on his march against him. He was one of the ablest of our monarchs; and his reign, on account of the changes and improvements effected in the laws and in the administration of justice, is one of the most important in our history.

In SCOTLAND the events of the greatest importance, before those mentioned above in the English history, occurred in the reign of William, from 1165 to 1214. That prince was taken prisoner at Alnwick, did homage for his kingdom to Henry II, and gave up its principal fortresses. Scotland was released from its vassalage by Richard I, on payment of a sum of money. On the death of queen Margaret, in 1290, the dispute respecting the succession arose, the consequences of which, up to the close of this period, have been related.

Before the conclusion of this period the Moorish power in SPAIN was almost annihilated; but the Christians were still divided, and carried on cruel wars against each other. They advanced, however, in civilization, and science for a time was prosecuted with advantage; but its career was checked towards the close of this period by the Inquisition, which was introduced by the pope, whose power unhappily was excessive. The orders of Alcantara and Calatrava were instituted, and numberless were the feats of gallantry performed. In 1212 the Christians united and overthrew the Moors, in a great battle in the Province of Toledo; and from that date the Moorish power rapidly declined. Cordova, Estremadura, all Murcia, Jaen, Seville, and Cadiz were conquered by Ferdinand III, King of Castile; and James I, King of Arragon, conquered Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Valencia. The crowns of Leon and Castile were united, and Portugal was declared a kingdom and had Algarve added to its territories. The Moors received reinforcements from Africa, but without avail; and they must have been entirely vanquished, had it not been for the dissensions which prevailed among the Christians. It was during this period that Ferdinand the Holy commenced, and Alphonso the Wise completed, the body of laws called the Partidas. Alphonso was celebrated for his learning and the encouragement he gave to science.

The GREEK EMPIRE under the Comneni, who reigned until 1185, was successfully maintained; but under the house of Angelo, which succeeded the Comneni, it was almost annihilated. The French and Venetians supported the house of Angelo, and the emperor Isaac II. having been dethroned, and great dissensions and confusion following, they, in conjunction with the rest of the crusaders, took Constantinople and seized upon the empire in 1203. Constantinople and Thrace were given to Baldwin of Flanders, as emperor of the Latins. Thessaly was erected into a kingdom for Boniface of Montserrat; and the Venetians obtained the islands of the Archipelago, part of Peloponnesus, and several cities on the Hellespont. Theodorus Lascaris, however, son-in-law of the murdered

emperor, flying into Bithynia, was joyfully received, and taking possession of that country and all the coast of Asia Minor from the Meander to the Euxine sea, assumed the title of emperor, and fixed his throne in the city of Nice. This division produced nothing but confusion; and Michael Paleologus being raised to the Greek throne with the assistance of the Genoese, subverted the Latin empire in 1261; and in order to gain the pope, he endeavoured to effect a union of the Greek and Latin churches. His son, Andronicus, however, pursued an entirely opposite course; disturbances were the consequence, and the Turks renewed their incursions with various success.

In 1187 the MAHOMETANS, under Saladin, sultan of Egypt, a great and warlike monarch, retook Jerusalem, and the Christians were finally expelled by the Mamlukes, a Turkish military body, *in* 1291, *when the crusades ended.* In Cyprus a christian state was founded by Richard of England in 1191, and endured until 1486. It was during this period that the power of the TURKS, which had grown with such rapidity, appeared to become stationary. The different sultans were divided against each other, while the MOGUL TARTARS, under GENGIS-KHAN, at the commencement of the 13th century, poured like a torrent into Southern Asia. In 1206 Gengis-Khan founded a prodigious empire, which under his grandson Battu, extended from the Ganges to the Dnieper. *The Caliphat of Bagdad, and with it the Saracen empire, ceased to exist in* 1258. *Under Kublai, who reigned from* 1279 *to* 1294, *the empire of the Moguls attained the summit of its grandeur,* and besides other immense acquisitions, China was added to it. It was however too extensive to remain permanently united, and on the death of Kublai it became divided in the manner hereafter mentioned.

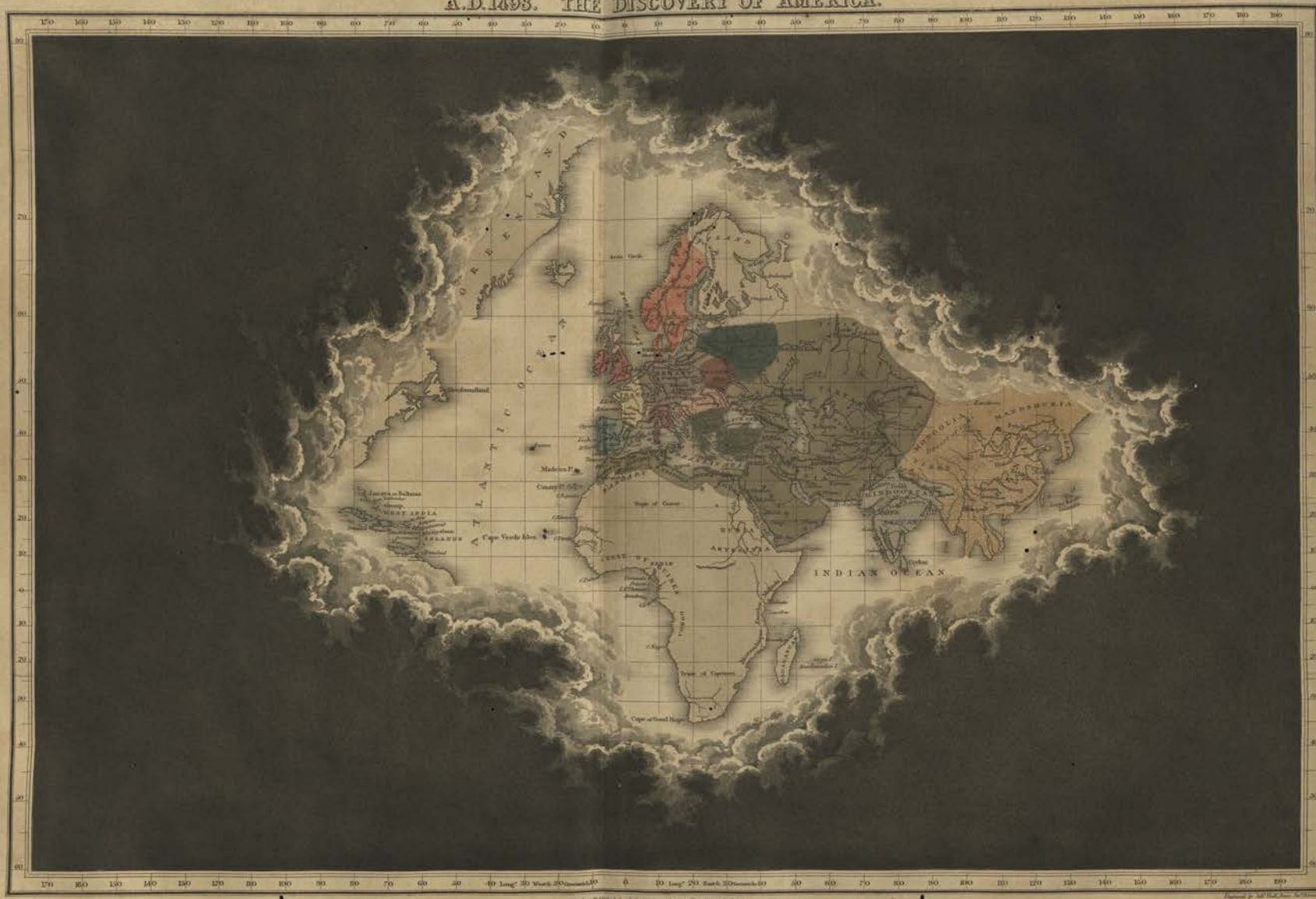
Having said thus much of the progress of the Mahometans, it may be as well to give a summary of the Turkish, Tartar, and Arabian possessions at the close of this period. They were as follows. The Seljuks were in Iconium. Of the descendants of Gengis-Khan one branch possessed Iran or Persia—a second, Zagatai or south-eastern Asia—a third, Kaptchak, to the northward and westward of the Caspian, including even Russia— and a fourth, China. The Mamlukes were in Egypt, Syria, and Palestine. Africa and part of Spain were possessed by various tribes, and Arabia was ruled by a number of Sheiks. It must not be supposed, however, that the Mahometan faith was adopted by all these countries. On the contrary, it was not recognized in Russia, and extended no further east than Cashgar.

The Northern part of AFRICA was a scene of crime and the resort of pirates. The devastations of the Mahometan corsairs were frightful. The country was divided into the petty states of Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, and the more important one of Morocco. In Tripoli and Tunis the Christians had some strength, but far too inconsiderable for them to make any stand against the Mahometans.

In INDIA the power of the Ghaznavide dynasty declined, and in 1183 was overthrown by the Afghan or Gaurian dynasty, which endured until 1289, and under which Delhi was the seat of empire. This part of India then fell a prey to the Moguls; but Hindoostan proper was still free from their yoke, although frequently assailed. After a time, the first Gaurian dynasty was succeeded by a second. It commenced with Ferose, who was descended from the Chilligi, a tribe of barbarians dwelling in the mountains of Gaur, and who murdered the last sultan of the first dynasty. India was covered with a multitude of petty princes, who were for the most part occasionally subjected by the sultan, although he possessed no authority but that derived from the superiority of his armies.

The Mandshur or Kin Tartars proceeded with their invasion of northern CHINA, and soon made themselves masters of the country to as far as the Yellow river; and in 1127, having taken the emperor and his consort captives, they rendered the southern provinces tributary. In order to shake off that dependency, the emperor formed an alliance with Gengis-Khan in 1220, and the Kin Tartars were subdued. The Mogul Tartars, however, soon became dissatisfied with mere tribute, and *commenced a conquest of the empire in* 1262, *which was completed by Kublai-Khan in* 1279.

A.D. 1498. THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.



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SIXTEENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DIVISION OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE, A. D. 1294. TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA, A. D. 1498.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
England, Wales and Ireland	Crimson.
Scotland	Pink.
Denmark, Sweden, Norway (united)	Red.
France and Navarre	Yellow.
The German Empire, embracing Germany; Flanders and the Low Countries	Purple.
Hungary, with Transylvania; Dalmatia; Moldavia	Orange.
Poland, with Lithuania	Chocolate.
Italy (Rome, Venice, &c.)	Lilac.
The Spanish Empire, embracing Spain; Naples and Sicily; Cuba, Hispaniola, &c.	Light Blue.
Portugal, possessing The Madeira, The Azore, and Cape Verd Islands	Dark Blue.
Russia	Dark Green.
The Ottoman Empire, embracing Greece; Roumelia; Wallachia; Servia; Bulgaria, Bosnia; Caffa; Albania; Asia Minor	Green.
Mahometan and Tartar Countries: Northern Africa; Egypt and Syria; Arabia; Persia; Korassan; Karasm; Turkistan; Tartary; The Kaptchack, comprising Turan, Kasan, Astracan, and the Crimea; Circassia; Georgia; Armenia	Olive Green.
Hindoostan	Grey.
The Chinese Empire, embracing China, Mongolia and Mandshuria; Corea; Tibet	Light Brown.

THE present period presents events of the utmost importance. To say nothing of other occurrences, which, but for the comparison, might be deemed of moment, we have the establishment of the Ottoman empire, the discovery of America, and of a new passage to India, the invention of printing, and the total change effected in the mode of warfare by the introduction of fire-arms. During this period too the nations of Europe made rapid strides towards their present state of civilization, and towards the system of policy which they have subsequently pursued. The darkness of the middle ages was dispelled and the way cleared for the progress of the Protestant religion by the light of science, literature, and commerce.

The war between FRANCE and England was soon ended, and Philip the Fair then checked the inordinate presumption of the pope, Boniface VIII. He successfully resisted the famous bull *clericis laicos*, which declared all religious orders exempt from taxation, seized the temporalities of those bishops who left his kingdom in obedience to an order of the pope, and on that pontiff's laying claim to a superior authority, convoked the states of his kingdom, which fully acknowledged his independent right to the sovereignty of France. It was on this occasion that the representatives of cities were first regularly summoned to the national assembly. The dispute was continued, to the great disadvantage of the court of Rome, until Boniface died, in 1303. In 1305 pope Clement V. fixed his residence in France. In the mean time Philip endeavoured to annex Flanders to France, but he only succeeded in acquiring Lisle, Douay, Orchies, and Bethune, and in 1304 Guienne was restored to England. The next step of Philip was to destroy, with atrocious cruelty, the Knights Templars, a celebrated military order instituted during the crusades. Their exploits have probably been exaggerated on the one hand, and their crimes on the other. It is worthy of mention also, that in his reign the supreme tribunals called parliaments, were first instituted. Philip died in 1314, and was succeeded by his son Louis X. king of Navarre. Louis died suddenly in 1316, and his uncle Philip V. ascended the throne in preference to Joan, the daughter of his elder brother. It was at this time that a general

assembly of the states declared females for ever incapable of succeeding to the throne of France. Philip, after expelling the Jews and correcting many internal abuses, died in 1322. He was succeeded by his brother Charles IV. who died in 1328 without male issue. The crown was now claimed by Philip of Valois and Edward III. of England, but the parliament of France decided, as justice required, in favor of Philip (VI). A war soon took place between the rival princes, and in 1346, the French were defeated at the famous battle of Crecy, and Edward reduced Calais. The battle of Crecy is said to have been the first important occasion on which cannon were used. In 1349 Dauphiny was bequeathed to the crown of France, and Philip VI. died the following year. His son John succeeded him. The war with England was renewed. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, invaded France, and took John prisoner at the battle of Poictiers, 1355. The dauphin assumed the title of regent, but the miseries of France were increased by the treachery of the king of Navarre, who corresponded with the English. At length a treaty was concluded in 1360, by which Edward obtained Guienne, Poitou, Saintonge, and the Limousin, and was to receive 3,000,000 crowns of gold in consideration of all his claims on France. John's fourth son Louis was left a hostage for the fulfilment of the treaty, but he escaping, the king voluntarily returned to London, where he died in 1364. His son Charles V. a prudent and able prince, taking advantage of the inactivity of Edward, and the bad health and subsequent death of the Black Prince, succeeded in restoring France to tranquillity and comparative security; but he died suddenly in 1380, and his son Charles VI. being but 12 years of age, the duke of Anjou was appointed regent. France soon relapsed into confusion, for the regent expended much of the revenue in an attempt to seat himself on the throne of Naples, and died without accomplishing his object. The subsequent administrations of the dukes of Burgundy, Berry, Bourbon, and Orleans, effected no improvement. Unhappily the king had scarcely passed his minority when he became so subject to fits of insanity as to be unable to govern, and the queen proving a vicious woman, the misery of the kingdom was increased. France at length became divided into two hostile parties, the adherents of Orleans and those of Burgundy. Assassinations and outrages were of frequent occurrence. Paris especially was a scene of almost uninterrupted bloodshed and violence. The dauphin attempted to establish himself in authority, but without success, and Henry V. of England, taking advantage of the confusion, claimed the crown, fought the victorious battle of Azincourt, married the daughter of Charles VI. and in 1420 entered Paris in triumph as regent. In two years, however, Henry died, and Charles VI. survived him but two months. Henry, leaving an infant son, appointed the duke of Bedford regent of France; but Charles VII. the rightful king, soon made head against the English, and through the assistance of an extraordinary female named Joan of Arc, who declared herself inspired, he was solemnly crowned at Rheims in 1429. The new saint made the French believe they were protected by the immediate hand of heaven. At length Joan was taken—tried by an ecclesiastical court by order of Bedford, and burned at Rouen in 1431. But still success attended the French arms. Bedford died in 1435, and in 1451 England had lost every hold in France except Calais. The English thus expelled, Charles pursued a prudent course of government, and established a standing army, but his latter days were embittered by the rebellion of his eldest son the dauphin, and he died in 1461. Louis XI. strengthened the royal authority, by various disgraceful expedients. The designs of Louis were assisted by the rashness of the duke of Burgundy. That prince, though master of the two Burgundies, Artois, Flanders, almost all Holland and Alsace, was desirous of subduing Switzerland and Lorrain, and becoming a king. He was killed however in a battle with the Swiss, and Burgundy, as a male fief, reverted to the crown of France. Louis XI. died in 1483, and notwithstanding his treachery, cruelty, and other vices, he not only knew the interests of France, but forwarded them. He refused to interfere with the politics of Italy on being applied to by Genoa, and under his reign feudal anarchy declined. Charles VIII. being but thirteen on the death of his father, his eldest sister Anne was appointed to govern. A civil war was the consequence; but on Charles' assuming authority, tranquillity was restored. Although the heiress of Bretagne was married by proxy to Maximilian, son of Frederick III. of Germany, she was prevailed on to marry Charles, who was himself affianced to Margaret of Austria. This event gave great umbrage to Maximilian and to Henry VII. of England; but after appearing in arms, they agreed to a treaty without striking a blow. Charles next proceeded to enforce a claim which he had made on the crown of Naples. He speedily and with ease effected the conquest of that kingdom, but he lost it with as great rapidity, and died without male issue in 1498.

In GERMANY, Albert I. desirous of aggrandising his family, procured the election of his nephew Charobert to the throne of Hungary, and was on his march to subdue the Swiss cantons of Ury, Schwyz, and Underwalden, which had entered into a confederacy for mutual protection, when he was assassinated by his nephew, the duke of Suabia, whose territories, as guardian, he had refused to restore. In 1308, Henry, count of Luxembourg was chosen emperor. He revived the claims of the emperor upon Italy, was crowned king of Lombardy, and was poisoned at Benevento in 1313. It was during his reign that Bohemia fell into the possession of the house of Luxembourg. After an interregnum of more than a year, and great confusion, Louis IV. of Bavaria was elected emperor. The popes renewed their claims of superiority, but the princes of the empire, ecclesiastical as well as secular, declared it independent of the pope, and that the imperial dignity might be conferred by a majority of the electors without the consent of the holy see. The empire enjoying a temporary tranquillity, Louis succeeded in suppressing many grievances, but in 1343, the intrigues of the pope Clement VI., set up a rival emperor in the person of Charles of Luxembourg. Louis however continued victorious till his death, which happened in 1347, when his rival Charles IV. acquired the imperial title, mainly through bribery. He died in 1378, and his reign was remarkable for a dreadful persecution of the Jews, the issuing of the golden bull, which regulated the powers of the seven electors of the empire, and his visit to Italy, which served only to show that the imperial authority was almost at an end in that country. He amassed wealth by the sale of privileges, and he expended it in purchasing titles and estates. By bribery his eldest son was elected king of the Romans; for his second son Sigismund he purchased the marquisate of Brandenburg, and he added Silesia and Lusatia to his own possessions. Charles IV. was succeeded by his eldest son Wenceslaus, who was a depraved and wicked prince. His oppression was beyond endurance; the nobles united for their mutual protection; the great towns in Suabia, Franconia, and on the Rhine, leagued together, and he was deposed in 1400. He afterwards reigned in Bohemia during 19 years, and his conduct was considerably improved. Henry of Brunswick was elected emperor, but was immediately assassinated, and Robert count Palatine, was raised to the imperial dignity. He died in 1410, and was succeeded by Sigismund, Wenceslaus' brother. The most memorable event of his reign was the assembling of a grand council at Constance, which put an end to a great schism in the church, of which we shall speak when we come to notice Italy. Under sentence of this council, John Huss, an eminent religious reformer in Bohemia, perished in the flames. Sigismund died in 1437, having previously nomi-

nated Albert, duke of Austria, who had married his daughter, king of Hungary and Bohemia. Albert II. was elected emperor, and thus commenced the grandeur of the house of Austria. He died in 1439. Frederick III, Albert's cousin, was elected to the empire. Both Hungary and Bohemia were lost, in a great measure, through his slothful and impolitic conduct. He died in 1493, and was succeeded by his son Maximilian, who already possessed Flanders, Franche Comté, and all the Low Countries.

The remarks contained in the last period are still applicable to the state of ITALY. In 1300 the Jubilee was established; and in 1305 the court of Rome was exiled to Avignon, where it was held until 1377, in which year it returned to Rome. In the following year the great schism occurred; one pope was acknowledged in Italy, and another in France; and at one time there were three claimants of the papal dignity. This confusion was put an end to in 1417 by a great council held at Constance. Rome was distracted by the factions of the Colonnas, the Orsini, and the Savelli; and a wild democracy raised for a moment an ignorant enthusiast, Nicolo Rienzi, to supreme power. Milan became powerful principally under the Visconti; while Genoa, under a doge from 1339, depended too much upon the wealth it had already amassed, and lost some of its power and territory. Tuscany long enjoyed prosperity under a truly noble family, the Medici; but at the close of this period it became a prey to anarchy and confusion. Venice acquired some fresh territory; but the golden period of its commerce had passed away. Naples, after several petty revolutions, was claimed by Ferdinand of Spain, and Charles of France; and Sicily continued with the house of Arragon.

During this period SWITZERLAND became independent. At the commencement it was under the house of Hapsburg, but such was the oppression of the Austrians, that in 1307, William Tell slew Gessler, one of their governors, and in 1315, a permanent republic was formed, which in 1481, embraced the cantons of Ury, Schwyz, Underwalden, Lucern, Zurich, Glaris, Zug, Bern, Freiburg, and Soleure.

After innumerable feuds and exchanges of territory, the kingdoms of DENMARK, SWEDEN, and NORWAY, were united under Margaret, daughter of Waldemar III. of Denmark. She died in 1412. By the union of the three kingdoms, which took place at Calmar in 1397, the monarchy was made elective. She was succeeded by Eric VII. her great nephew, but so infamous was his conduct that he was expelled in 1439, and Christopher III. of Bavaria, was called to the throne of Denmark, while Charles Knutson ruled in Sweden as administrator. Christopher dying in 1448, Christian I., count of Oldenburg, was elected, and acknowledged in the greater part of the three kingdoms in 1457. He inherited Holstein and Sleswick, and mortgaged the Shetland and Orkney islands to Scotland. Christian met with much opposition in Sweden from Sten Sture, the son of Charles Knutson, and died in 1481. John, the son of Christian, succeeded in subduing Sten Sture, and was crowned in Sweden in 1496, as well as in Denmark, and in Norway.

POLAND was governed by active monarchs during this period. Casimir the Great, who reigned from 1333 to 1370, was successful against the Teutonic knights, and extended his dominions. Louis the Great of Hungary, next reigned, and he was succeeded in 1386 by Jagellon, duke of Lithuania, who acquired the throne by marriage, and was baptised by the name of Vladislaus. During his reign Lithuania and the Zips towns became Polish. His son and successor Vladislaus III., from his great success against the Turks, was elected king of Hungary, and fell in battle in 1444. His brother Casimir III. succeeded him, and acquired West Prussia, but lost Great Novogorod, some other places, and Severia, to Russia. He chastised the insolent and debauched Teutonic knights, and dying in 1492, was succeeded by his third son John Albert.

HUNGARY experienced a variety of fortunes. Under Louis the Great (from 1341 to 1382), its power was rapidly increased, and it again declined under succeeding monarchs; in the middle of the 13th century, its general John Hunniades, astonished the world by his success against the Turks. During the minority of Vladislaus V. Hunniades was appointed regent, and on his death, and that of the young monarch in 1457, Matthias Corvinus, the son of Hunniades, was elected king. Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia were subject to him; he reduced Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola, and even took Vienna. He encouraged agriculture, the arts and sciences, and died in 1490, when Vladislaus of Bohemia was elected king. He commenced his reign by subscribing, in 1491, to a degrading capitulation, by which he ceded Vienna, Carniola, Carinthia and Stiria, without a blow; and on failure of his own issue, engaged the crown to the house of Austria.

The present is an important epoch in the history of RUSSIA. After great disunion and contention, Demetrius became grand duke of Moscow, and in 1380 acquired the surname of Donski, by a great victory he obtained over the Tartars on the banks of the Don, or Tanais. He was afterwards however, obliged to submit to the Mogul yoke. At the close of the 14th century Timur-Lang, (Tamerlane) after conquering the Kaptschaks, subdued Russia, but he soon turned his arms towards Syria, and the Kaptschak empire dissolved into a number of small states, or distinct hordes, the chief of which were those of the Crimea, Kasan, Astracan and Turan. The Mogul power was thus greatly weakened, and Iwan Wasiljewitsch, an able prince who ascended the throne of Moscow in 1462, permanently united together a territory of great extent, and in the course of fifteen years, entirely emancipated it from foreign domination. He even rendered Kasan tributary, and was likewise successful against the united Poles and Lithuanians, from whom he made several conquests. He may justly be regarded as the founder of the Russian power.

PRUSSIA continued for some time under the Teutonic knights, but towards the close of the period it was dismembered. In 1310 the knights acquired Pomerellia, and Lauenburg and Bütow in 1321. In 1347 they purchased Esthonia, and their power attained its utmost height. They were possessed of great wealth, considerable territory, and a flourishing commerce, but they were extortionate in their imposts, and Ebling, Thorn, Konigsberg and Dantzic, sought the protection of Poland. A war was the consequence, and the knights were compelled to cede Samogitia in 1436, West Prussia in 1466, and to hold East Prussia as a fief. But although thus reduced they claimed their independence, and their contests with the Poles continued beyond the close of this period.

In ENGLAND this period commenced with the reign of Edward II. a weak and despicable prince. At the head of a warlike and loyal people, with all the advantages of his father's preparations against Robert Bruce, he lost Scotland after sustaining a great defeat at Bannockburn in 1314. Bruce afterwards sent his brother with an army into Ireland, where after being crowned king, he was defeated and slain. Edward was the slave of favorites, whose monstrous power so enraged the nobility, that frequent combinations were formed; and two of his minions, Gaveston and Le Despencer, were executed. England was reduced to a lamentable state, and its wretchedness was increased by a dreadful famine. Edward was unhappily married to an infamous woman, Isabella of France, who after an adulterous intercourse with Roger Mortimer, invaded the kingdom with a foreign force, and took the king prisoner. After suffering gross indignities, he was cruelly murdered in 1327. His son and successor Edward III. was of a very different character. At an early age he took bold and vigorous measures against the profligate tyranny of Mortimer, who was in consequence impeached and executed as a traitor; and Isabella was properly restricted and confined. Edward soon restored tranquillity

in England. In Scotland, on the death of Robert Bruce, he supported the pretensions of Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, against those of David Bruce, and completely defeated and drove the Scotch from the field, but without effecting the conquest of the kingdom. He then engaged in war against France, where, as has been already seen, the English won the battles of Crecy and Poictiers. In 1346 the Scotch were defeated by the English headed by Philippa, Edward's queen, and David Bruce, their king, was taken prisoner. Baliol, a few years afterwards, resigned his title to Edward. During this reign the authority and infallibility of the church of Rome were openly questioned and disputed by John Wickliff, a doctor of divinity of Oxford. He was cited before a synod at St. Paul's, but, being protected by the duke of Lancaster, he was only enjoined silence. Edward died in 1377. He refused to pay a tribute to the pope, which was claimed on the authority of a promise by John, encouraged commerce and manufactures, gave stability to the parliament, abolished the use of the French language in law proceedings and public deeds, caused the law of treason to be better defined than it had hitherto been, and instituted the order of the garter. His grandson, Richard II, but eleven years old, succeeded to the throne. The taxes imposed during his minority were oppressive to the people, especially of the lower order, and an insurrection took place, headed by one Wat Tyler. The populace, after committing violent outrages, met with the young king in Smithfield, where Tyler, threatening his sovereign with his sword, so enraged Walter, the mayor of London, that he killed the rebel with his mace. Richard's presence of mind unexpectedly restored order and prevented further mischief. His future life, unfortunately, was in direct opposition to so promising a beginning. He went at the head of a powerful army against the Scots under Robert Stuart, who had succeded to the throne on the death of his uncle David Bruce, but returned without striking a blow. On his coming of age he threw off all restraints that had been imposed upon him, and pursued an unwise and tyrannical course of conduct. He is even believed to have caused the duke of Gloucester to be murdered. A quarrel having taken place between Henry earl of Hereford, eldest son of the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk, which was brought before the parliament, he took occasion to banish both those noblemen. The earl was banished for ten years, but with a special reservation of his hereditary claims. On the decease, however, of the duke of Lancaster, his sentence was most iniquitously changed into perpetual banishment, and all his estates were confiscated. An insurrection occurring in Ireland, through the gross oppressions which were practised, Richard repaired to that country; but he left England in a state of no less discontent. Northumberland, his son Henry Percy, and other nobles, invited Henry of Lancaster to demand the restitution of his rights, and that prince speedily returned to England. His success was so rapid that, in 1399, he compelled Richard formally to abdicate, and he himself was proclaimed king of England and France, and lord of Ireland. In the reign of Richard a law was passed which may be considered as the first navigation act of this kingdom. Richard was supposed to be murdered the same year in Pomfret Castle: and thus the house of Lancaster possessed the throne, though the earl of March was the rightful heir, by being descended from Clarence, the elder brother of the first duke of Lancaster. Henry IV. was a prudent and politic prince. He first conciliated the barons, and then materially reduced their power. Northumberland and others offered a vain resistance. Harry Percy was killed in battle, and the archbishop of York and others were beheaded. During this reign the doctrines of Wickliff spread considerably; but the king was adverse to reformation, and even signed a warrant (the first in England) for burning a Lollard. In 1413 Henry V. succeeded his father. The commencement of his life had been dissolute, and so irregular as to cause the chief justice to commit him to prison; but no sooner did he ascend the throne than he became a great and virtuous monarch. His triumphs in France have been already noticed. His reign was unfortunately short, for he died in 1422, and was succeeded by his infant son, Henry VI. who was crowned both at Westminster and Paris. A council, instead of a regent, was appointed by parliament; and the duke of Bedford was named Protector when in England, and his brother, the duke of Gloucester, in his absence: but, notwithstanding the precautions that were taken, this reign proved but a series of misfortunes. Of the loss of France enough has been already said. The king was of too feeble a mind to conduct the government, and England became a scene of continued conflicts between contending factions. The discontent of the people manifested itself in various commotions; the most remarkable of which was one excited by Jack Cade, a man of low condition and bad character, who took the name of John Mortimer, and collected a large body of men on pretence of a redress of grievances. They were dispersed, however, without doing any serious mischief. The kingdom being thus disorganised, the duke of York, descended from the second son of Edward III. laid claim to the crown, the king being a descendant of the third son of that monarch. The boldness and ability of the queen, Margaret of Anjou, were the main support of Henry's party. Those frightful and sanguinary civil wars followed which have been known as the wars of the Red and White Roses; the former having been the ensign of the house of Lancaster, and the latter of the house of York. The originator of this contest, the duke of York, was killed in 1460. His son maintained his claims, and in the following year was proclaimed as Edward IV. He created his brother George duke of Clarence, and Richard duke of Gloucester. Queen Margaret still made head against him, but was at last entirely defeated, and fled to France. Edward, however, having offended the powerful earl of Warwick, to whose aid he was chiefly indebted for the throne, that nobleman took up the claims of the deposed monarch, and in 1470 restored the crown to Henry VI. The Lancastrians, however, were defeated at Tewksbury in 1471, Henry was deposed and put to death, and the triumph of Edward over the house of Lancaster would have been complete, had not Henry Tudor, the young earl of Richmond, descended from John of Gaunt, third son of Edward III. escaped to Bretagne. Edward was a cruel and vicious prince, and besides other crimes had his brother Clarence put to death. He died in 1483, and was succeeded by his son Edward V, who was but twelve years of age, and who, with his brother the duke of York, is believed to have been murdered by his uncle Richard, the duke of Gloucester. Richard III. usurped the crown; but his atrocities had alienated the nation from him, and the earl of Richmond, on advancing his claim, was joyfully received. Richard was slain in battle near Bosworth; and Richmond, now Henry VII. by marrying Elizabeth, heiress of the house of York, united the two roses. *He was the first of the line of Tudor.* Various pretenders to the crown appeared, but he maintained himself against them all, and increased his wealth and power by confiscating the estates of their supporters. One of the pretenders, Perkin Warbeck, said to be the son of Edward IV. was tried and executed. *In* 1497-8 *John and Sebastian Cabot discovered Newfoundland, and the coast of North America.*

SCOTLAND, taking advantage of the weakness of Richard II. and of the civil wars in England, rendered itself independent. Robert II. the first of the house of Stuart, ascended the throne 1371. After his death, in 1390, the chief influence was long in the hands of the duke of Albany. James I. who fell into the hands of the English on his passage to France, was detained prisoner for eighteen years. He returned to Scotland in

1423, and reigned until 1437, when he was murdered. He made great efforts to improve the condition of his kingdom, and to introduce order and civilization. The rest of this period was marked by almost uninterrupted turbulence and confusion, from the exorbitant power of the nobles. James II. was killed when laying siege to Roxburgh; James III. fell in a civil war; and James IV. became king in 1487.

The power of SPAIN was much increased. The Balearic islands, Roussillon, Cerdagna, and Montpellier were united to Arragon in 1344, Sicily in 1409, and Naples in 1435. In 1469 Ferdinand of Arragon was married to Isabella of Castile; and after the death of Henry IV. the two kingdoms were united in 1479. The new sovereigns repressed the nobility, and the Santa Hermandad (holy brotherhood) was formed for the extirpation of the numerous robbers who infested the country. The government was vigorous, but unhappily the Inquisition was established in its most iniquitous form. In the course of four years no less than six thousand persons are stated to have been burned to death, and upwards of a hundred thousand to have suffered torture. In 1492 the Moors, who till then had maintained themselves in Grenada, were finally overcome; and the Jews were dreadfully persecuted and expelled the kingdom. In the same year the islands of *San Salvador, Bahama, Cuba, and Hispaniola were discovered* by Christoval Colon, or as he is commonly called, CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS. In the following year the same illustrious navigator discovered Jamaica, Guadaloupe, and several others of the West India Islands; *and in* 1498 *he landed, near the river Orinoco, on the vast continent which afterwards received the name of* AMERICA, from Amerigo Vespucci. The extent of discovery in North America up to this time is mentioned in our sketch of the history of England.

PORTUGAL maintained its independence, notwithstanding many wars. The third estate was introduced in 1360, and Ceuta was taken in 1411. Under the protection of prince Henry, the Portuguese navigators, whose voyages had hitherto been bounded by Cape Non, discovered Porto Santo in 1418, Madeira in 1420, the Azores in 1433, and doubled Cape Bojadour. They discovered the Cape Verd Islands in 1444, and Guinea in 1452. *In* 1486 *Diaz reached the Cape of Good Hope; and in* 1498 *Vasco de Gama not only doubled that Cape, but explored the eastern coast of Africa, and reached Calicut in India,* from Melinda. He appears not to have observed the Island of Madagascar, but it is said to have been previously invaded by the Arabs. The Portuguese commenced a trade with the inhabitants of Guinea, and erected several small forts at different stations along the coast. They found the country in general divided into small states, but in an uncultivated and barbarous condition.

About the year 1300, Osman, or OTHMAN, may be said to have founded the OTTOMAN EMPIRE. His son Orchan conquered Nicomedia, Nicœa, and Bithynia, and took the title of sultan; and the Ottoman Porte was established at Bursa. Sestos and Gallipoli were next reduced; and Amurath I. conquered Romania, transferred the Porte to Adrianople, and formed the corps of janizaries. BAJAZET, the thunderer, reduced Bulgaria, Servia, Macedonia, Thessaly, Greece, and Asia Minor; but on his being made prisoner by the Tartar, Timur-Lang, (Tamerlane) there were many disputes among his sons, until Mahomet I. proved victorious. He reduced Wallachia, and the Christian powers made a feeble effort to unite in opposition to the extension of the Ottoman empire. In 1421, Mahomet I. was succeeded by Murad II, who penetrated as far as Epirus and Hungary, and defeated the Christians in 1444, at Warna, and in 1448, at Cassovia. He died in 1451, and was succeeded by Mahomet II, *who completed the destruction of the Grecian empire. Constantinople,* though bravely defended by its last emperor, Constantine XI, *was taken by storm in* 1453. Mahomet II. erected the Old Dardanelles; reduced Trebizond in 1461; expelled the Genoese from Caffa in 1473; triumphed over the Christian armies; gained Negropont and Lemnos from Venice in 1479; and conquered Otranto in 1481. He was repulsed the same year at Rodes, and died, when Bajazet II. ascended the throne. He immediately lost Otranto, and proved a very inferior monarch to his able and successful predecessor.

Northern AFRICA had experienced no improvement, but was still a prey to barbarism and licentiousness; although, through the industry of the Jews, it possessed, Morocco in particular, some share of commerce.

The TARTAR or MOGUL EMPIRE, which had been founded by Jenghis-Khan, soon underwent further divisions than it had experienced immediately on the death of Kublai-Khan; and in about 1369 TIMUR-LANG, a subordinate commander in Bucharia, after having rendered himself independent, commenced a career of conquest which eclipsed even that of his greatest predecessor. He rapidly overrun Kashgar, Karasm, Korassan, Candahar, Cabul, all Persia, and proceeded to the extremity of Tartary. One body of his troops spread dismay to the wall of China, while another subdued the whole country as far as the Irtish, and a third marched to the banks of the Wolga. The city of Ispahan having revolted and destroyed the whole of the Tartar garrison, Timur advanced against it, carried it by storm, and 70,000 heads, built into pyramids, attested his savage revenge. His territories having been invaded by the ruler of Kaptchack, he advanced into that country, and chastized his opponent. After quelling some insurrections in the conquered countries, Timur again advanced into Kaptchack, traversed the country, deprived its ruler of his crown, and attacking Russia, took and plundered Moscow in 1396. India then felt the influence of his desolating power. In a single campaign he overran Hindoostan, committing the most frightful atrocities at every step. In the meantime Bagdad, together with other places, had questioned his authority, and that city felt the dreadful vengeance of the remorseless conqueror. On its ruins he erected a pyramid of 90,000 heads. He then turned his arms against Bajazet the Thunderer, whom he overthrew and made prisoner in the plains of Angora. The authority of Timur was now acknowledged from the Irtish and the Wolga to the Persian gulf, and from the banks of the Ganges to the shores of the Mediterranean; the sultan of Egypt confessed his supremacy, and a rare gift of a cameleopard and nine ostriches represented at his court the tribute of Africa; but his ambition was not satisfied, and he formed plans for new conquests. The race of Jenghis Khan had been expelled from the empire of China, and Timur resolved to exterminate the idolaters of that country. The preparations being complete, he crossed the Jaxartes in March 1405, but his progress was put a stop to by a fever, of which he died in the seventieth year of his age. The vast fabric of his power had no foundation; it was upheld by his individual fame; and the moment that he died, his empire dissolved. One of his grandsons, Khulleel Sultaun, was invested with the crown, but his vices soon led to his deposition, and Shah Rokh, the fourth son of Timur, became his successor. He was a virtuous and able prince, and died in 1446, at the age of seventy-one, leaving extensive dominions to his son, Ulugh Beg, who inherited the character of his father. His reign, however, was short and calamitous. He was taken prisoner and put to death by his own son. After this the contentions increased among the descendants of Timur, who were vanquished in Tartary by the Usbecs, and in Persia by the Turcomans. The Kaptchaks divided into different hordes; the Afghan dynasty resumed its authority in India; and at the close of the period, Baber, the grandson of Shah Rokh, who ruled in Korassan, was the only descendant of Timur Lang who retained his paternal possessions.

The strength of INDIA was continually weakened, by the attempts the emperors of Hindoostan made to increase their territories, and the opposition which was offered by the petty princes. About 1350 an independent kingdom was founded in the Deccan by Houssan; and in 1397 Timur-Lang, the Tartar, invaded Hindoostan. He overran the country, dethroned the emperor, sacked Delhi, and crossed and recrossed the Indus in little more than five months. He seemed to appear rather for the purpose of desolating than of conquering; for, previously to his death, the emperor was restored, and Timur's authority was extinct. Hindoostan, however, did not recover its strength; but, at the close of this period, was divided into a great number of petty kingdoms.

In CHINA, such was the wisdom of the Mogul emperors, until they were enervated by luxury, that it became proverbial. At length, however, in 1333, the effeminate indolence of the reigning monarch, Shun-tee, was so great, that a Chinese of very low origin, named Shu, siezed upon the throne, and drove Shun-tee into northern Tartary. Shu took the name of Tay-tsoo, and commenced the Ming dynasty in 1368. He is celebrated as a great prince. Up to the conclusion of this period the arts and sciences flourished; the fleets are said to have visited the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea; and the Dalăi Lama of Tibet, (a country even now but very little known to Europe) besides the Corea, Mongolia, and Mandshuria recognized the supremacy of China. The western provinces, however, of Tonquin and Cochin China took advantage of the accession of the Mogul emperors to withdraw from the empire. *Tonquin was erected into a kingdom*, but its monarch acknowledged the superiority of the Chinese emperor, although he was despotic in his own dominions. Cochin China was in a state of barbarism until the beginning of the 15th century, when a large body of disaffected Tonquinese expelled its original inhabitants, the Moys, and founded an independent kingdom in spite of the opposition of the king of Tonquin.

SEVENTEENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA, A. D. 1498. TO THE DEATH OF CHARLES V. OF GERMANY, A. D. 1551.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
England, Wales, and Ireland,	Crimson.
Scotland	Pink.
Denmark, Norway, and Holstein	Red.
Sweden	Brown.
France, possessing New France	Yellow.
The German Empire, embracing Germany, Hungary	Purple.
Poland	Chocolate.
Italy, (Rome, Venice, &c.)	Lilac.
The Spanish Empire, embracing Spain, The Milanese, Naples and Sicily, The Netherlands, Mexico, Peru, New Granada, Chili, &c. Cuba, Hispaniola, &c.	Light Blue.
The Portuguese Empire, embracing Portugal, Brazil, Malabar, Mozambique, Ceylon, Malacca, Ormuz, Moschat, &c.	Dark Blue.
The Russian Empire, embracing Russia, Kasan, Astracan, and districts to Mount Caucasus	Dark Green.
The Ottoman Empire, embracing Roumelia, Bulgaria, Wallachia, Moldavia, Transylvania (dependent), Albania, Bosnia, Servia, Asia Minor, Armenia, Georgia, Syria, Egypt, Northern Africa (except Tunis)	Green.
Persia	Olive Green.
Hindoostan	Grey.
The Chinese Empire, embracing China, the Corea, Tibet, Mandshuria and Mongolia	Light Brown.

IN this period the change of religion took place, for which the events of the last had in some measure prepared, and immense advances were made in the career of conquest and discovery in the New World. Charles VIII. dying without male issue, the duke of Orleans, descended from Charles V., ascended the throne of FRANCE, with the title of Louis XII. He divorced his wife Joan, the daughter of Louis XI. and married Anne of Bretagne, the widow of his predecessor. Louis possessed many admirable qualities, and his reign might have been one of unmixed happiness to France, had he not been ambitious of extending his power in Italy. He laid claim to the Milanese, as the grandson of Valentina Visconti, sister to the last legitimate duke; and his chief ambition seemed to be to support these pretensions. Being at first successful, he immediately turned his views to the kingdom of Naples, which he proposed to divide with Ferdinand of Spain. A compact was speedily made between the two powers, and Naples was taken; but when Louis demanded his portion of the spoil, the Spanish captain, Gonsalvo de Cordova, turned his arms successfully against the French, and the new conquest remained in the sole possession of the Spaniards. After a vain attempt to conquer Naples, Louis joined the emperor, the king of Spain, the duke of Savoy, and the pope, in the celebrated league of Cambray in 1508, for the destruction of the republic of Venice. The ruin of the Venetians appeared inevitable, when the pope changed his course of policy, and directed his efforts to the furtherance of a project he had conceived for expelling all foreigners from Italy. He detached the king of Spain from the league, and with the aid of the Swiss, deprived Louis of the Milanese. Louis having gained some victories, the pope, together with England, Spain and Germany, formed a league against him, and Henry VIII. of England invaded France, but his utter incapacity prevented the invasion from producing any important consequences. Louis soon found an accommodation necessary; and in 1514, after having humbled himself before the pope, his queen, Anne of Bretagne, being dead, he formed an alliance with England, agreed to pay a million of gold crowns, and received Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. in marriage. He died the following year, and was succeeded by Francis I. who, while count of Angouleme, had married his eldest daughter. Francis was brave and ambitious of glory, but he was destitute of prudence. Having resolved on an expedition for the recovery of the Milanese, he had recourse to an indiscriminate sale of offices, in order to raise sufficient supplies: the station of judge itself was bartered away. His attempt was successful, but it was a fatal conquest to the French. On the death of the emperor Maximilian in 1519, Francis

aimed at the imperial dignity, but Charles of Austria and Spain was elected in preference; and hence arose an almost perpetual war between those two princes. Francis renewed the project of conquering Naples, but he was almost uniformly unsuccessful. By the infamous conduct of Louisa, the queen-dowager, the duke of Bourbon, constable of France, and a general of the highest reputation, was driven into the service of the emperor, and the French were forced to quit the Milanese with great loss. The chevalier de Bayard, celebrated for his valour and integrity, was among those who fell. Francis at length, gaining some advantages over Bourbon, who was assisted by the emperor and the English monarch, again advanced into Italy, lost a great battle at Pavia in 1525, and was made prisoner. The following year he regained his liberty by a treaty at Madrid, by which he relinquished Milan, Genoa, Naples, and Burgundy. His two eldest sons were given as hostages for the fulfilment of the engagement; but scarcely was he set free, when he obtained absolution from the pope, and not an article of the treaty was executed. The war was consequently renewed, England, the pope, and Venice, acting with France. Rome was pillaged by the troops of Bourbon, who was killed in an assault, and the pope, Clement VII. was for a time a prisoner in the hands of the victorious army. At length both the antagonists were desirous of peace, and in 1529, the calamities of war were suspended by a treaty made on the part of the two monarchs, by the duchess of Angouleme, and Margaret of Austria, governess of the Lower Countries. Francis abandoned his claims to Milan, Flanders and Artois, and engaged to pay two millions of gold crowns for the ransom of his children, and Charles gave up his pretensions to Burgundy. But Francis felt his degradation, and meditated revenge. To secure the clergy he violently opposed the Lutherans, who were now spreading in France, and after making a vehement speech before the bishops of Paris, he had six of them burned. An occasion for hostilities soon arose. The Milanese was allotted to Francesco Sforza, and on his dying without issue, the emperor seized on it. Francis renewed his pretensions, and the emperor invaded France. Francis defended his kingdom with prudence and success, and in order to carry on the war, he formed an alliance with the Turks. The Turks were to attack Hungary and Naples, while the French invaded the Milanese. The Ottomans were at their post, but Francis could not make his arrangements in time, and the scheme proved abortive. At length the pope, Paul III. became a mediator. The emperor and Francis met at Nice, and a truce was concluded for ten years. The whole ambition of Francis seemed to be to obtain Milan; and when Ghent revolted from the emperor and offered to acknowledge the supremacy of France, he actually rejected the proposal, and made the emperor acquainted with it, in hopes of compassing his favourite design. He even permitted the emperor to pass through France to subdue the rebels, received him with great pomp at Paris, and was after all deceived. Charles bestowed the Milanese on his own son. Francis soon found new reasons for a war, but allies were not easily to be gained. His severity to the Lutherans had alienated the protestant Germans, and he had offended Henry VIII. of England by crossing the marriage of his son Edward with Mary, queen of Scotland. He however succeeded with Sweden, Denmark, and the Turks. Henry VIII. and Charles V. united, and invaded France; but instead of at once advancing to Paris, they wasted time in useless sieges, and another treaty was concluded. Francis died in 1547. He founded the royal college and printing-house, encouraged learning, commanded that the public acts should be written in French; built the palace of Fontainbleau, and began that of the Louvre. Francis was succeeded by his son Henry II. a prince of ordinary capacity and little prudence. Although he persecuted the protestants in his own dominions, he united with those in Germany against the emperor in 1552, and the constable Montmorenci reduced Metz, Toul, and Verdun. In 1557, he made war with England, and suffered a great defeat at St. Quintin; but his enemies neglected to pursue their advantage, and the duke of Guise wiped away the stain by taking Calais, which had been held by the English for 200 years. In 1558 the dauphin was married to Mary, queen of Scotland. In 1559, the treaty of Chateau Cambresis was concluded, by which the peace of Europe was established on a firmer basis than by any preceding arrangement; and in the following year Henry died from a wound he received at a tournament. During his reign the court was a scene of ambitious intrigue and rivalry, in which the queen, the prince of Condé, and the Guises, were the leading persons concerned, and a dreadful persecution was commenced against the protestants. While these events were transpiring a part of North America was taken possession of, and called New France. The St. Lawrence was explored and a feeble attempt was made to colonize the country.

In 1500 the emperor Maximilian divided GERMANY into six circles, Franconia, Bavaria, Swabia, the Rhine, Westphalia and Saxony; to which four more, Austria, Burgundy, the Lower or Electoral-Rhine, and Upper Saxony, were added in 1512. The league of Cambray against the Venetians, and the holy league against France, have been already noticed. Up to the close of this reign, the pope still tyrannised over Germany, and according to the emperor himself, the holy see drew from his dominions more than 500,000 ducats annually. A fatal storm however was gathering, for corruption had reached its height. The immense expenditure of pope Leo X. drained the coffers of the holy see, and under the stale pretence of a war against the Turks, indulgences were sold in Germany, even in taverns. The Dominican monks were especially commissioned to preach them up, which gave offence to the Augustines, who were envious of a preference which they looked upon as an infringement upon their rights. *MARTIN LUTHER, a learned theologian of that order, began to preach against Indulgences, and insisted on the necessity of a reformation of the church.* At first, he attacked only the most extravagant of the abuses, but being irritated and threatened, he soon assailed the doctrines of Rome. In 1517 he was summoned before a diet at Augsburg, and contended against the pope's sale of indulgences. From the decision of the legate, Cardinal Cajetan, he appealed to the judgment of the pope, and afterwards to a general council. He declared indulgences to be follies, purgatory, a fable, the pontifical power, usurpation, monastic vows and the greatest part of the ceremonies of the church, so many monstrous superstitions; and he invited all christians to consult the scriptures themselves, as affording the sole rule of faith. Maximilian died in 1519, and was succeeded by his grandson Charles V. (of Spain). The new emperor was opposed to the reformation, but Luther found a firm friend in Frederick the Wise, elector of Saxony, and vicar of the empire. In 1520 the pope published a bull, in which he not only condemned Luther's works to the flames, but commanded the extirpation of him and his adherents, if they did not recant their errors in sixty days. This bull, together with the volumes of the canon law, was burned by Luther at the university of Wittemberg. The progress of Lutheranism was rapid. In a few years the church of Rome lost Saxony, Hesse, Brunswick, Denmark, and Sweden. The greater part of Switzerland adopted the sentiments of Zuinglius, a parish priest of Zurich, who attacked the doctrine of the eucharist with more boldness than Luther. In both parties fanaticism was but too common; and Germany and Switzerland especially suffered from its desolating influence. In 1521 an imperial diet was held at Worms, and Luther was outlawed, by Charles. Frederick, however, still protected him in Wartzburg, where he translated the New Testament in 1522. The edict of Worms was renewed in 1529, and the Lutherans protesting against

it were thence called Protestants. In 1530 they presented a confession of their faith at Augsburg, and on the emperor's threatening them with persecution, they formed a league at Smalkalde for mutual protection; and Francis I. soon after privately took part with them in opposition to the emperor. Charles V. being harassed by the Turks concluded a treaty with the protestants at Nüremberg in 1532, by which they were granted liberty of conscience, on condition that they should assist him against the foreign foe. Fanaticism however raged violently, and in 1535 an insurrection of the Anabaptists took place at Munster under John, a taylor of Leyden. Charles having made peace with the Turks and French in 1544, proceeded against the protestants. Through the treachery of his nephew Maurice, Frederick of Saxony was taken prisoner, and the Saxon Electorate was bestowed upon the traitor. The landgrave of Hesse was also deprived of his liberty by Charles. In 1548 the emperor obtained the sanction of the Diet of Augsburg, to a system of doctrine which was to be conformed to, until the assembling of a general council. Hence it was called the *Interim*. It excited the dissatisfaction of both parties; the protestants thinking that it granted too little indulgence, the catholics too much. At a council subsequently held at Trent, attended principally by prelates under the influence of Charles, the utmost intolerance towards the protestants was evinced, and the whole of his policy indicated his design to destroy the civil and religious liberties of the Germanic body. The Lutheran princes now perceived the danger, and Maurice of Saxony, after deceiving the emperor for some time with extraordinary subtlety and skill, appeared at the head of a powerful army against him, and obtained *the treaty of Passau in* 1552, *by which the free exercise of their religion was secured to the protestants*, and all encroachments upon the constitution and liberties of Germany were referred to a diet. The provisions of the treaty of Passau were fully confirmed in a diet at Augsburg in 1555. The emperor had now grown weary of ambition and longed for retirement. All his efforts to overrule the religious differences which agitated Germany, had proved futile; his plans of foreign policy had led to no satisfactory results, and he had of late been subject to frequent and severe attacks of the gout. He had already ceded part of his possessions to his brother Ferdinand, arch-duke of Austria, who at his instance was elected king of the Romans in 1530; and to his eldest son Philip he had resigned the Milanese and the kingdom of Naples. In 1556 he abdicated all power, in a public assembly of the states of the Netherlands, and retired to the monastery of St. Justus in Estremadura, where he died in 1558. It should be remarked that though the act of abdication was made in 1556, it was not presented to the Germanic body until 1558, when Ferdinand I. of Austria, was elected emperor. Charles had vainly endeavoured to secure the election of his son Philip, who succeeded him in his other possessions.

ITALY knew little or no improvement during the present period. The papal territories were increased, by the annexation of Bologna in 1513, and of Ancona in 1532. The reformation in the north gave a severe blow to the spiritual tyranny of the holy see, but its power was still great. Immense sums were expended on the cultivation of the fine arts during the pontificate of Leo X. (John Medici,) and in 1545 Paul III. established his family, Farnese, in the possession of Parma and Placenza. The order of Capuchins was instituted in 1532, and that of the Jesuits in 1540. The Milanese fell under the dominion of Charles V. who left it to his son, Philip II. of Spain. Under the Dorias Genoa threw off the influence of France, and became of some importance; but the day of its splendour had passed away. Venice, too, was greatly reduced. Through the Portuguese discoveries, it lost the Indian trade; it was impoverished by the league of Cambray; and its territories were restricted by the Turks. In Florence, the house of Medici was supported by Spain; and at the close of this period Cosmo I. descendant of the brother of the elder Cosmo, received Sienna as a Spanish fief from Philip II. Naples and Sicily were under the rule of Spain.

SWITZERLAND maintained its independence. Basil, Schaffhausen and Appenzel joined the confederacy, and thus the thirteen cantons were united. Shortly after the appearance of Luther, Zuinglius and Calvin openly opposed the doctrines of Rome, and liberty of conscience was established in 1531. The chief employment of the Swiss was in serving as mercenaries under foreign princes.

SWEDEN resisted the authority of Denmark, but the union of Calmar was partially in force until 1524, when it was formally dissolved, in consequence of the atrocities perpetrated by Christian II. of Denmark. Gustavus Vasa, after extraordinary exertions and sufferings, gave freedom to his country, and the crown of Sweden was declared hereditary in his family. He espoused the reformed religion, encouraged commerce, formed an alliance with Francis I. of France, and even projected the marriage of his son with Elizabeth, queen of England. He was a prince of great virtue and ability, and after an honourable reign of thirty-six years, died in 1560.

DENMARK was prosperous during the reign of John, which lasted till 1513; but the whole country was thrown into confusion by his successor Christian II. who was guilty of many acts of tyranny, and amongst them of the massacre of a great number of the Swedish nobility. He was deposed in 1523, when his uncle Frederick, duke of Sleswick and Holstein, was called to the throne. He restored tranquillity, established the reformed religion, and after a prosperous reign, died in 1533. After some confusion, his eldest son Christian III. was elected king. Norway was made a province of Denmark, and Sleswick and Holstein became subject to it. Aided by the Lubeckers, the deposed monarch made an attempt to regain his authority, but the power of Christian III. was only more firmly fixed by it. In 1536 the Sound was declared open to the Netherlanders, and commerce flourished; Christian III. died in 1559, and was succeeded by his son Frederick II.

POLAND continued to be ruled by the male line of Jagellon, and was almost incessantly engaged in war with Russia. In 1514, Smolensk was ceded to the czar, and Silesia, Moravia, and Lusatia, separated from Poland, while Livonia acknowledged its supremacy. Perpetual peace was declared between Poland and Prussia in 1525; the territory of the Teutonic order was secularized; Albert the grand master embraced Lutheranism, and received eastern Prussia as a hereditary ducal fief from Poland.

HUNGARY was a prey to internal confusion and the inroads of the Turks. Lladislaus died in 1516, and was succeeded by Louis II. who perished in battle against the Turks at Mochaz in 1526. Moldavia was lost to the Turks during the reign of Lladislaus, and the towns of Dalmatia placed themselves under the protection of Venice. On the death of Louis II. *the crown of Hungary fell to the house of Hapsburg*, but the country was in a state of distraction, and Ferdinand I. was unable to maintain tranquillity although assisted by his brother Charles V. Lapolya after a considerable struggle, being supported by the Turks, was declared king of Transylvania in 1538. Hungary was saved for a time from the devastations of the Turks, by a treaty which Charles V. concluded with Solyman in 1544, but was afterwards again overrun by them.

The czars of RUSSIA increased their power, at the expence of Poland and of the Tartars. Iwan Wasiljewitsch II. who ascended the throne in 1533, was an able prince. He conquered Kasan in 1552, and Astracan and the districts extending to Mount Caucasus in 1554. He formed the regular or national guard, and endeavoured to introduce civilization, commerce, and science among his people. His reign extended far beyond the close of this period.

In ENGLAND the authority of Henry VII. was almost absolute, and he used it to amass treasure and reduce the power of the nobles. He united his eldest son, Arthur, to Catherine of Arragon; but the young prince dying before the consummation of the marriage, the avaricious and prudent monarch, rather than restore the portion of Catharine, married her to his second son, afterwards Henry VIII. Henry VII. died in 1509, and was succeeded by Henry VIII. to whom the most brilliant prospects and opportunities proved entirely useless. In the outset of his reign he was misled by Ferdinand of Spain, who induced him to impoverish his treasury by a futile attack on France; and immediately afterwards he suffered the emperor Maximilian to practise upon him the same deception. Henry chose for his prime minister a man named Wolsey, who was the son of a butcher, and rose from a very low station to that of Cardinal and legate. He was excessively ambitious and corrupt; alternately the tool of Charles V. and of Francis I. The king being desirous of a divorce from Catherine, the minister endeavoured to secure the concurrence of the holy see. Previously to this Henry had written a book, "De Septem Sacramentis," against Luther, on which he received from the pope the title of Defender of the Faith; but still he met with more impediments in his divorce than he anticipated. Wolsey was disgraced in 1529, and deprived of all his property; and died the following year, when on the eve of being tried for high-treason. Henry now came to an open rupture with the court of Rome, and was supported by the parliament. The payment of annates, and all appeals to the court of Rome were abolished; Cranmer, a reformer, was appointed to the see of Canterbury; Henry's divorce from Catherine, a most virtuous princess, and his marriage with Anne Boleyn, were announced without the sanction of the court of Rome; and *in* 1534 *Henry was declared supreme head of the church, and monasteries were suppressed.* The lord chancellor, sir Thomas More, resigned the great seal; and, on refusing to take the oath acknowledging the spiritual supremacy of the king, he was beheaded. Fisher, bishop of Rochester, suffered with him. Henry's tyranny soon became in the highest degree atrocious, but he met with no opposition from parliament. He confiscated the property of the church with impunity, and oppressed both protestants and papists. In 1536 Anne Boleyn was beheaded, on a false charge of adultery; and, on the day following the execution, Henry married Lady Jane Seymour. In the following year the new queen died in childbed, and the king married Anne of Cleves. The kingdom was now in confusion, but the parliament still supported Henry in his exactions and his atrocities. A statute was passed for abolishing diversity of opinions concerning the Christian religion, which was called the Bloody Statute, from all its penalties being capital; and another, giving the force of acts of parliament to royal proclamations. In 1540 Henry divorced Anne of Cleves, on the pretence of a pre-contract on her part; and having privately married Catherine Howard, she was declared queen. In 1541 the king was declared king, instead of lord, of Ireland. It appearing, by her own confession, that Catherine Howard had been guilty of great incontinence, previously to her marriage with Henry, she was beheaded in 1542; and he married a sixth wife in Catherine Parr, who narrowly escaped the fate of two of her predecessors. Henry daily committed fresh acts of dreadful violence; persecuted the Protestants for not believing in the real presence, and the Catholics for denying his supremacy; made an unsuccessful expedition into France, as already noticed; and died in 1547. In his own dominions he was a brutal and rapacious tyrant; and in almost all his foreign transactions a contemptible dupe. He was succeeded by Edward VI. his son by Jane Seymour. The duke of Somerset was appointed lord protector. Cranmer promoted the reformation, and caused the liturgy to be revised; but, although he was a man of judgment and moderation, the papists suffered much persecution. Some of the tyrannical laws of Henry VIII. were repealed. Great confusion and distress arose from the destruction of the monasteries, and the sudden transfer of the lands held by them to other proprietors, who enclosed their estates, and deprived numbers of the poor cottagers of the means of subsistence. In 1549 the power of Somerset was overthrown by the earl of Warwick, who afterwards became duke of Northumberland; and the influence of that nobleman became so great that he induced Edward to assign the succession to his daughter-in-law, lady Jane Grey, grand-daughter of Henry VIII. to the prejudice of the claims of the daughters of that king, Mary, by Catherine of Arragon, and Elizabeth, by Ann Boleyn. But Edward dying in 1553, Mary ascended the throne, Northumberland was beheaded, and lady Jane Grey suffered the same fate in 1554. The next year Mary married prince Philip of Spain, and a raging persecution of the protestants was commenced. In 1556 Cranmer perished at the stake, and hundreds suffered similar torture. Calais was taken by the French in 1558, and Mary died the same year. From the dreadful violence with which she attempted to establish popery, her reign has been emphatically called the Bloody Reign.

In SCOTLAND, James IV. vainly opposed Henry VII. of England, and in 1513 was slain in a battle at Flodden Field. He was succeeded by James V. who instituted the court of Session, and married Mary of Guise. He died in 1542, leaving an only daughter, Mary, an infant but a few days old. She was first betrothed to Edward VI. of England, but was married to the dauphin of France in 1558. The remaining and most important transactions of her reign must be noticed in the next period.

SPAIN acquired a vast increase of power and wealth. Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, was married to Philip, the son of the emperor Maximilian. In 1504 Ferdinand acquired Naples; and the same year was marked by the death of Isabella, who, in consequence of Joanna's having become insane, left Philip, her son-in-law, protector of Castile, until her grandson, Charles, should be of age. Philip died in 1506, when cardinal Zimenes was named regent, and, supported by Ferdinand, he filled the office with great integrity and ability. In 1510 Ferdinand obtained possession of Navarre, and dying in 1516 he was succeeded by his grandson Charles, who thus united the possessions of the house of Austria with those of Castile and Arragon. In 1519 Charles was elected emperor of Germany, and shortly after resigned his dominions in Germany to his brother Ferdinand, who became Archduke. Besides his wars with France and in Germany, which have been already recorded, Charles reduced the Goletta and Tunis in 1535, and in 1540 made a similar attempt upon Algiers, but with less success. He formally ceded Malta to the knights of St. John. In 1555 he resigned the Netherlands to his son Philip, and in the following year he also abdicated the throne of Spain in his favour. In Spain, the enormous power of Charles was often checked by that of the nobles, who claimed, amongst other privileges, an exemption from the payment of taxes. Charles dismissed them from the cortes, and declared that, as nobles and prelates paid no taxes, they had no right to a voice in the national assemblies. During this period Spain greatly extended her discoveries and conquests in South America, *Mexico was conquered by Cortes in* 1519-21, *and Peru by Pizarro in* 1531-3. The followers of Cortez penetrated into New Mexico, and visited California; while those of Pizarro advanced from Peru into Chili, and succeeded in conquering a considerable part of that country, and founding many towns. They were unable, however, to overcome the Araucanos. The greater part of New Granada was explored and conquered by Quesada; and Guiana was taken possession of. Buenos Ayres was also founded, and the

neighbouring country laid claim to; but the boundaries of the Spanish and Portuguese possessions were not defined. Of the western part of the continent to the southward of Chiloe, little or nothing was known except the coast. Both in the West India Islands, and in the Americas, the Spaniards perpetrated the greatest atrocities, in order to acquire sudden wealth. The former were almost depopulated, through the unbounded cruelties of their oppressors; and an expedient resorted to by their celebrated protector, to afford them relief, inflicted most frightful miseries on the rude savages of Africa. A monk, named Las Casas, from witnessing the dreadful sufferings of the West Indians, pleaded their cause so strongly, that, in 1517, Charles V. granted a patent by which that blot on Modern Europe, the *African Slave Trade*, was authorized and commenced, with a view to yield protection to the American Indians!

In PORTUGAL, Emanuel the great reigned until 1521, and was succeeded by John III, who died in 1557. This may be said to be Portugal's golden period. The spirit diffused by Prince Henry the Mariner was most successfully active; and Lisbon, instead of Venice, distributed the luxuries of India to civilized Europe. *Brazil was discovered and taken possession of in* 1501, and the maritime districts of Ceylon were reduced between 1505 and 1509. The coast of Malabar, together with Ormuz and Malacca, were reduced between 1509 and 1516; and trade was established with the Moluccas. The trade with China was commenced in 1518. About the same time the colony of Mozambique was formed, and Portugal became powerful on the east as well as on the west coast of Africa. The Portuguese also possessed themselves of Moschat in Arabia, and maintained so strict a secresy with respect to the countries they discovered, that, even to the present time, their proceedings are involved in obscurity. They found the Arabs established in considerable numbers on the coasts of Ajan and Zanguebar, and that Mahometanism had also penetrated into many of the Asiatic islands which they discovered. *The eastern coast of America south of the equator was explored; and, in* 1521, *Magalhaens, or Magellan, discovered the strait known by his name.* He discovered also the Ladrones and Philippine islands, *and was the first circumnavigator of the world.* Japan was discovered in 1542. The discoveries of Vasco de Gama were boldly and successfully followed up; and in the middle of the sixteenth century the Portuguese had become masters of the east coast of Africa; of portions of the coasts of Arabia and Persia, and of the two peninsulas of India; of the Moluccas; and of the trade to China and Japan. They seized every vessel that sailed on the Indian seas without their permission, ravaged the coasts, insulted the native princes, destroyed the temples of their religion, and established the inquisition at Goa.

The OTTOMAN EMPIRE increased in power and extent. Bajazet, who was murdered in 1512, was succeeded by Selim II. who conquered Moldavia, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt; overthrew the Mamlûk government; and formed the Turkish navy. His successor, Soliman II. was a great prince, both as a warrior and a politician. He reduced Belgrade in 1521, the isle of Rhodes in 1522, Peterwardein in 1525; over-ran Hungary, penetrated into Germany, and in 1529 even invested Vienna. He instituted the office of high admiral; Barbarossa was the first who held it; and he subdued Algiers, Tunis, and Yemen. Mention has been made of the alliance with France, and the treaty with the emperor. The Turkish empire extended from Stiria to the Tigris, and from the banks of the Dneiper to the falls of the Nile: its armies spread terror through a great part of Europe, while its squadrons ravaged the shores of the Mediterranean.

The TARTAR EMPIRE had now perished, and that people cease to require particular attention. Those who were independent were divided into wandering and uncivilized hordes.

In PERSIA, Ismael Sophi, descended from the restorer of the sect of Ali, founded a dynasty, in 1501, to the exclusion of those of the Turcomans of the "White" and "Black sheep," (so called from the devices on their flags) who had succeeded Tamerlane. His father and brothers lost their lives in endeavouring to establish themselves in Shirwan; but Ismael succeeded when only fourteen years of age. He immediately afterwards became master of Adjerbijan; and the next year he was victorious in Irak. Within four years he became the acknowledged sovereign of Western Persia; and, having reduced the whole of Persia to his authority, he took Bagdad. He then defeated the Usbecs in Khorassan, which he acquired, as he did also Balk. He was, however, completely defeated, in 1514, by Sultan Selim, on the frontiers of Adjerbijan. After the death of Selim, Ismael subdued Georgia, and died in 1519. He occasioned the religious schism which exists between the Persians and the Turks. His eldest son, Shah Thamas, succeeded to the throne, and Persia suffered from incursions by the Usbecs, and from a Turkish war.

In AFRICA, Tripoli, Algiers, and Morocco, during this period assumed nearly the same character and stations which they at present hold. The first two became tributary to the sultan at Constantinople; and the latter acknowledged his superiority as representative of the prophet. Their corsairs plundered the vessels of all nations without distinction, and committed the most frightful atrocities on the coasts of the neighbouring countries. Charles V. endeavoured to subdue them, but he was only partially successful. The expedition of that emperor against Tunis has been already noticed. It was undertaken at the instance of Muley Haseen, whose barbarity had lost him his throne. He had succeeded his father, who left thirty-three other sons, and in order to secure himself, Muley destroyed as many of his brothers as he could get into his power. One of them, Al-Raschid, fled to Barbarossa for protection, and that pirate immediately seized upon Tunis for himself. Muley applied to Charles V. for succour, who, with a fleet and an army of 30,000 men, possessed himself of the Goletta and city, and reinstated the dethroned barbarian.

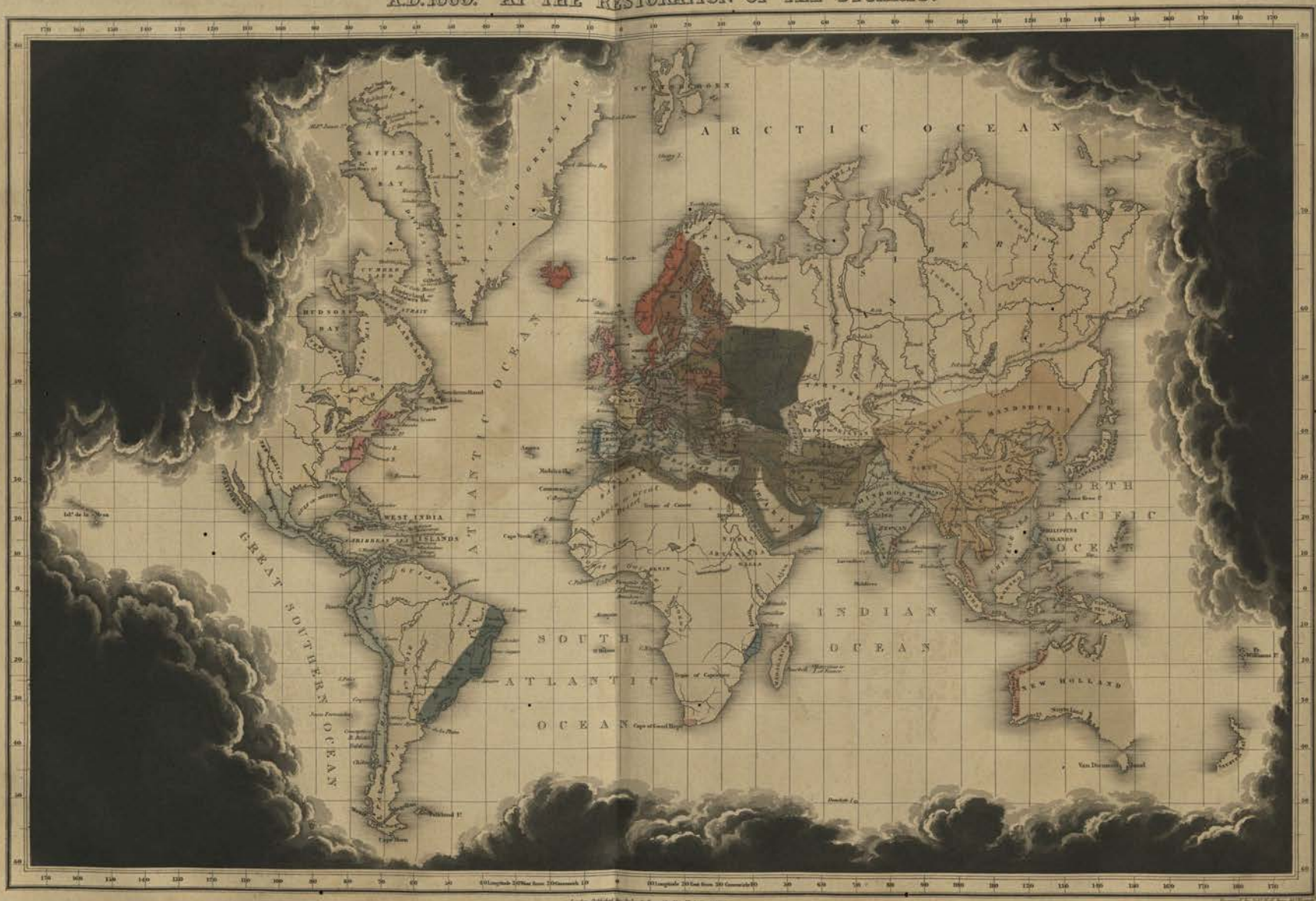
In INDIA, Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, revived the grandeur of his house. Being driven from his paternal dominions, situate between Samarcand and Kashgar, by the Usbec Tartars, he sought to indemnify himself by conquests in Hindoostan. After four expeditions, he succeeded in overthrowing the second Gaurian dynasty; and, in 1525, *founded the Empire of the Great Mogul* at Delhi. He reduced Bahar, and was succeeded by his son Humaioon, who after maintaining himself upon the throne in spite of great difficulties, reduced Guzerat and died in 1555. The Deccan and Peninsula were still divided into a number of petty kingdoms. The progress of the Portuguese and the increased acquaintance of Europe with India have been already noticed.

Hitherto the greater part of the eastern peninsula of India has been left unnoticed; but, as it became known to Europe in the course of this period, through the discoveries of the Portuguese, this is a convenient opportunity of giving some account of it. It is said formerly to have acknowledged the supremacy of China; then, excepting Cochin-China and Tonquin, to have asserted its independence, and to have continued a sort of republic until about the sixth century, when several kingdoms were formed. The principal of these were Assam, Tipra, Arracan, Pegu, Ava or Birmah, Laos, Siam, and Camboja. The idolatry of Budhu generally prevailed, and the princes were despotic. Cannon and gunpowder were known to the people of Assam at a very early date. There is no satisfactory history of these kingdoms. At the close of this period, Tipra was subject to

Arracan, and Pegu and Siam were the most powerful. The Malays possessed themselves of the Malacca in or about the twelfth century, and the Portuguese on their arrival in 1509, found a system prevailing, very similar to the feudal government of Europe. The Portuguese soon became masters of the town, which from its situation proved highly advantageous to them in prosecuting their commerce with China and the Asiatic Islands. Tonquin and Cochin-China underwent no alteration.

CHINA continued under the Ming dynasty, and flourished. Its fleets are said to have visited the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. The Portuguese visited Canton in 1517 and the following year, and commenced a lucrative trade. There were Christian missionaries in China in 1555.

A.D.1660. AT THE RESTORATION OF THE STUARTS.



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disposition was as base as that of his predecessor. After the protestants had obtained an edict of pacification in 1576, the catholic league was formed by Henry Guise, and the king declared himself its head. A fifth religious war took place, and the Huguenots, as before, had recourse to foreign aid. Peace was again concluded between the parties in 1580, but through the treachery of the court, war once more broke out in 1585. The king had now grown fearful of the Guises, and in 1588, as a climax to his atrocities, he caused both the duke and his uncle the cardinal to be murdered, and joined with the Huguenots, who were led by Henry, king of Navarre. Henry III. was assassinated the following year, by Clement, a Dominican monk, and Henry of Navarre succeeded to the throne as Henry IV. *He was the first king of France of the house of Bourbon.* The catholic leaguers proclaimed Henry's uncle, the cardinal of Bourbon, king, and the pope declared Henry IV. a relapsed heretic; nor was it until 1593, when he abjured the protestant faith, that the whole nation submitted to his authority. At his accession the kingdom was in a state of dreadful anarchy, but by his prudent measures he restored it to peace and prosperity, and protected it from many intrigues entered into by Spain. By an edict granted at Nantz in 1598, and duly observed, he conciliated the protestants, and having been successful in his foreign policy, he turned his thoughts towards foreign aggrandisement. He was cut short, however, in his career. In 1610, just as he was on the point of taking the field against the emperor of Germany, he was assassinated in the streets of Paris by Francis Ravaillac. He was succeeded by his son Louis XIII. then nine years of age, and Mary de Medici, the queen-mother, was appointed regent. In 1624 Richelieu became the first and in reality the only minister. He suppressed the office of constable of France, disarmed the Huguenots, compelled the queen-mother to leave France, reduced the privileges of the nobles, and acquired an absolute dominion over Louis XIII. He humbled the pride of Spain by bringing the Italian courts under the influence of France; and he reduced the strength of Austria by assisting the protestants and taking part in the thirty years' war. As a general he was not less successful than as a minister, and after foiling every effort made to reduce his authority with the king, he died in 1642. Louis died the next year, and was succeeded by his son Louis XIV. then only five years old. The queen-mother, Anne of Austria, became regent, but her authority was superseded by cardinal Mazarine, who had recommended himself by his abilities to Richelieu. The duke d'Enghein, afterwards the great Condè, and marshal Turenne, prosecuted the war successfully against Spain and Austria, and by the peace of Westphalia in 1648, France gained Alsace, the Sundgau, and Breisach. But the excessive pride of Mazarine created general discontent, and the parliament resisting his authority, a civil war took place. His opponents were known by the name of *Frondeurs*, and acted principally under the cardinal de Retz. After assisting Mazarine, Condè formed an independent party, and having had recourse to arms, was defeated by Turenne. The confusion was great, but the king, being now of age, assumed his authority, dismissed Mazarine from office, and restored peace by publishing a general amnesty in 1652. Mazarine was recalled and reinstated the next year, on which Condè went over to the Spaniards. France formed an alliance with England, and the war was vigorously prosecuted against Spain. Turenne proved himself a great general, and after the French had acquired both glory and territory, a peace was concluded in the Pyrennees in 1659. Louis obtained Roussillon, Conflans, part of Flanders, Hainault, and Luxemburg, and the Infanta of Spain in marriage. Mazarine died in 1661.

At the commencement of this period Ferdinand I. was seated on the throne of GERMANY. By his prudence and moderation he maintained the pacification of Passau. His reign was also remarkable for the convocation of the council of Trent, which proved the last assembly of the kind. Ferdinand I. died in 1564, and the empire found a worthy successor in his son Maximilian II. a monarch who combined firmness with moderation. While he preserved the peace of the empire, he enhanced the reputation and importance of his own family. Maximilian died in 1576, and was succeeded by his son Rudolph II. who was already king of Hungary and Bohemia. In his reign the protestant princes of the empire entered into a confederacy called the Evangelical union, and this association was opposed by another called the Catholic league. A petty dispute about the duchies of Cleves and Juliers divided the states of the empire and even caused the interference of other powers. Rudolph died during the contest in 1612. He left no issue, and Mathias, his heir, was elected emperor. The hostility between the protestants and papists increased, and in 1618 gave rise to a war of thirty years' duration. The emperor died the next year. After considerable opposition, his heir, Ferdinand II. was elected to the empire, but the elector Palatine, a protestant, was elected king of Bohemia, as Frederick V. Frederick was supported by all the protestant princes of the empire, except the elector of Saxony, and also by troops from England and the United Provinces; but he was overwhelmed by Ferdinand who was assisted by the catholic princes of the empire, the king of Spain, and the arch-duke Albert. Bohemia became imperial and catholic. The electoral dignity was transferred to Bavaria, and the Palatinate was dismembered. Imperial despotism and spiritual tyranny now reigned throughout Germany, but in 1625 the lower circle of Saxony, with the assistance of Denmark, made a struggle for emancipation. The imperial arms however were still victorious, and Christian of Denmark, being defeated at Lutter, was forced to abandon the cause of his allies and make a separate peace, which he did at Lubeck in 1629. Encouraged by his success, Ferdinand made an attempt to revive the imperial authority in Italy; and issued an edict commanding the German protestants to restore all the benefices and church lands which they had enjoyed since the peace of Passau. In Germany he maintained a decided superiority until 1630, when the protestants formed an active alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The armies of the emperor were every where defeated, but Gustavus Adolphus being killed in the midst of victory at Lützen, in 1632, the Swedes and their allies sustained a reverse of fortune, and in 1635 the Saxons were compelled to make a peace. France now took an active part in the war, and subsidized Sweden, whose armies again advanced into Germany. Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and his son Ferdinand III. became emperor. For several years he prosecuted the war with vigour, but with small success against the French and their allies, till at length after most complex and protracted negociations, the peace of Westphalia was concluded in 1648. By it the Germanic constitution was definitively regulated. The territorial rights of the states known under the name of *supériorité territoriale,* the right of entering into alliances with each other and with foreign powers, and of co-operating with the emperor in the diet on all points concerning the general government of the empire, were fully assigned to them and guaranteed by the contracting parties. The territorial pretensions of France, Sweden, the empire, and the several German states were adjusted; an eighth electorate was established in favor of the elector Palatine, who had been stripped of his dignity by the emperor; and the stipulations as to religion were full and satisfactory, ultimately embracing the Calvinists as well as the Lutherans. It was agreed that the imperial chamber should consist of twenty-four protestants and twenty-six catholics; that six protestants should be admitted to the aulic council; and that an equal number of protestant and catholic deputies should be chosen for the diet, except on

some particular occasions. Ferdinand III. died in 1657, and Leopold I. ascended the imperial throne.

It was during this period that an important part of the Netherlands revolted from Spain, and formed itself into the republic of HOLLAND. The barbarous oppression perpetrated by the duke of Alva, under the authority of Philip II. was insupportable to the protestant provinces, and they found an able leader in William, prince of Orange. Being defeated by land, William had recourse to a maritime war. A revolution in Zealand gave an example which was soon followed by many towns in Holland. In 1576, by the union of Dordrecht,—Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, covenanted not to treat with Spain except by common consent; publicly established the reformed religion; and declared the prince of Orange, stadtholder or governor. The confederates, countenanced by Elizabeth of England, soon left the Spanish troops in possession only of Luxemburg, Limburg, and Namur, and were on the eve of expelling them altogether from the Netherlands, when Alexander Farnese, prince of Parma, was appointed governor-general by Spain. By his great abilities he revived the Spanish party, and taking advantage of the difference of religion among the confederates, regained several places. The prince of Orange succeeded in effecting a closer alliance between the maritime protestant provinces. In 1579 the union of Utrecht was formed by Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, and Guelderland, and afterwards agreed to by Overyssel and Groningen. William was murdered by the emissaries of the king of Spain in 1584, and his second son, Maurice of Nassau, was elected his successor. The naval power, the commerce, and the importance of the united provinces increased most rapidly. Possessions were acquired by them in India, Africa, and America. By the peace of Westphalia their independence was formally acknowledged, while the ten southern provinces of the Netherlands continued under the dominion of Spain. On the death of William II. which occurred in 1650, the stadtholdership was abolished, and an act passed to exclude the house of Orange from authority. Republicanism was at its height. A short war then took place with England, and admirals Van Tromp and de Ruyter acquired a high reputation. In 1654, John de Witt was nominated grand pensioner, and he fully maintained the independence of the republic. *New Holland* was discovered by a Dutch navigator in 1642.

Erik, the eldest son of Gustavus Vasa, succeeded to the throne of SWEDEN. He was a cruel prince, and was deposed in 1568, when his brother John II. was crowned king. He was succeeded by his son Sigismund, in 1592, who was also king of Poland. Sigismund was a catholic, and on endeavouring to re-establish the Romish religion he was deposed, in 1604, and Charles IX. the youngest son of Gustavus, ascended the throne. Charles was succeeded in 1611 by his son Gustavus Adolphus, who in the course of an honorable reign acquired Kexholm, Karelia, and Ingria, from Russia; Livonia and part of Prussia from Poland; led the protestants triumphantly in Germany, and at length fell in 1632, in the arms of victory at Lützen. The title of his daughter Christina was at once acknowledged; and during her reign the freedom of the Sound and the provinces and isles of Jempteland, Herjedal, Gothland, and Oesel, were gained from Denmark; and Hither-Pomerania, Wismar, Bremen, and Verdun, by the peace of Westphalia. Christina, however, was so devoted to literature and amusement, that in 1654 she abdicated in favor of her cousin Charles X., retired to Italy, embraced catholicism, and after a vicious life, died in 1689. Bred in a camp, Charles longed to signalize himself in war, and John Casimir, king of Poland, by protesting against his elevation to the throne, afforded him the opportunity he desired. Charles invaded Poland in concert with Frederick William of Brandenburg, gained a brilliant victory, and formed a plan for partitioning Poland, when Russia and Denmark, and afterwards Prussia, counteracted his project by commencing hostilities against him. Charles at once marched from Poland into Holstein, took possession of that country, of Sleswick and Jutland, and, boldly marching across the frozen belt, advanced towards the Danish capital, and in 1658 dictated the peace of Roëskild. It was scarcely concluded, however, before he broke it; and besieged Copenhagen, which was rescued from destruction only by assistance from Holland. Charles died prematurely in 1660, and was succeeded by his infant son Charles XI. In the same year, by the peace of Oliva, Poland ceded definitively Livonia and Esthonia to Sweden; and by the peace of Copenhagen, Denmark ceded the provinces of Schonen, Bleckingen, Halland and Bahus, Drontheim and Bornholm. In 1661, peace was concluded with Russia on equal terms.

DENMARK participated in the thirty years' war, and suffered much from its contests with Sweden. Frederick II. reigned from 1559 till 1588, and was succeeded by his son Christian IV. who died in 1648. The Dutch, alarmed for their commerce, persuaded his successor Frederick III. to make war with Charles X. of Sweden, and the calamitous result has been already noticed. In 1660, on the conclusion of peace, the diet, preferring almost any government to that which had so reduced the country, declared the power of the king to be absolute and hereditary.

In POLAND, the male line of Jagellon expired in 1572, at the death of Sigismund Augustus. The monarchy became actually elective, and the duke of Anjou was placed upon the throne. It has already been shown how he deserted it for that of France. Stephen Bathori of Transylvania was then made king. He restored tranquillity, completed the subjection of Livonia, and wisely employed the Cossacks against the Turks. Bathori died in 1587, and Sigismund of Sweden was elected. He conquered Smolensk, Czernichew, and Severia from Russia, but was compelled to resign Moldavia to the Turks, and Livonia and part of Prussia to Sweden. In 1632 he was succeeded by his son Uladislaw IV. during whose reign the Cossacks made war against the kingdom, in consequence of their privileges having been infringed. Uladislaw died in 1648, when, after considerable opposition, his brother John Casimir was elected king, and his reign proved most disastrous. The king did not possess sufficient authority to maintain tranquillity among the nobles; the Cossacks, after making dreadful incursions, threw themselves into the arms of Russia; and the sacrifices made by the peace of Oliva were necessary to save the kingdom from destruction. The war with Prussia continued, to the prejudice of Poland.

HUNGARY experienced a respite from foreign invasion, but it was in a most discontented and unsettled state. The protestant religion was fully tolerated from 1644, and the house of Austria continued to occupy the throne.

During the latter part of the reign of Iwan Wasiljewitsch, in RUSSIA, the greater part of *Siberia* was explored and subdued. Iwan died in 1584, and left two sons, who were both assassinated, after the elder, Feodor, had reigned eleven years. In Feodor *ended the line of Ruric*, which had governed Russia for 700 years. After much intrigue and violence, Michael Feodorowitsch, of the *house of Romanow*, was elected czar, with unlimited power. Gustavus Adolphus aimed at the crown, and Uladislaw, of Poland, had been declared elected, but Romanow was firmly seated on the throne. In wars with Sweden and Poland he was unfortunate: but at the period of his death, in 1645, his court received ambassadors from the princes both of Europe and Asia. His son Alexis was but fifteen years old, and Russia, during his minority, was again a prey to internal discord, and the ravages of the Poles and Swedes. When Alexis became of age, however, he restored internal peace, and was successful against Poland, recovering Severia and Czernichew.

PRUSSIA was raised into importance by FREDERICK WILLIAM THE GREAT, who succeeded to that dukedom in 1640. He added

Further-Pomerania, and other possessions, to his territories, concluded an advantageous peace with Sweden in 1656, and in 1657 was recognised by Poland as hereditary and independent Duke of Prussia.

On the death of Mary in 1558, ELIZABETH, daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, succeeded to the throne of ENGLAND. A futile attempt was made by the Guises to procure the accession of their niece Mary, of Scotland, the offspring of the eldest daughter of Henry VII. Every effort directed to this object was counteracted by the vigilance and policy of the queen of England, although the catholics in that country were still sufficiently numerous and powerful to form dangerous combinations, and excite well-founded alarm. Elizabeth was so firmly attached to the protestant religion, that its restoration was among the first acts of her reign, and she established the church of England in its present episcopal form. In 1563, England first embarked in the African slave trade. Mary of Scotland was driven from her dominions in 1568, and sought the protection of Elizabeth, who unjustifiably detained her as a state prisoner, and the Scottish queen was never able to regain her freedom. A general conspiracy of British and foreign catholics, in favour of Mary, and of the restoration of popery, was attempted in 1572; but it was easily quelled, and the confinement of Mary became more strict. In 1586, a conspiracy was formed for the murder of Elizabeth, but it was detected and crushed, and Mary, without being proved to have been connected with it, was tried, condemned, and beheaded at Fotheringay Castle in the following year. Elizabeth, however, had still reason to apprehend danger from the catholics. Philip II. of Spain, as their head and champion, and irritated at the assistance Elizabeth afforded to the united provinces, fitted out an immense fleet, which he arrogantly styled *The Invincible Armada*, and intended for the conquest of England. Troops were also assembled on the coasts of Flanders and France to assist in the design, and the pope issued his ecclesiastical thunders against the protestant queen. Elizabeth made the most energetic preparations, both by sea and land, and the great majority of the nation gave her enthusiastic support. The armada appeared in the British channel in 1588, but was defeated, and afterwards scattered and almost destroyed by a storm. The great caution of the queen prevented her from engaging in foreign wars, but she inflicted considerable injury on the commerce and coasts of Spain, assisted the protestants in Germany, Denmark, and France, and was the firm and active friend of Henry IV. till he apostatized. Elizabeth never married, though often solicited to do so by her ministers and people. On the Earl of Essex, a man of accomplishments rather showy than solid, she lavished innumerable favours, and not seldom to the prejudice of more deserving subjects. His insolence was great, and wherever he commanded his conduct was reprehensible;—especially in Ireland, where he was entrusted with the chief authority, at the time of a formidable rebellion, which he totally failed in his attempts to suppress. Being disgraced, he endeavoured to raise an insurrection, and was beheaded in 1601. Elizabeth died in 1603. Her reign, though so arbitrary as to be almost despotic, was truly prosperous. The protestant religion was firmly established, the naval power of Great Britain was much increased, manufactures and commerce flourished, and navigation was extended by Drake, Frobisher, and others. A colony was planted by Drake at Virginia, but it did not prosper, and in fact the settlers did not even continue together to the close of the reign. Elizabeth was succeeded by James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England; *by whom the two kingdoms were permanently united.* He was the son of Mary, whose reign had produced a series of calamities to Scotland and to herself. Educated in France, by her uncles the Guises, she was a rigid catholic, and attempted to force her subjects to return to that religion, although the great majority were strongly attached to the presbyterian worship. Not less imprudent was her opposition to Elizabeth: it drew upon her the enmity of that princess, who increased her difficulties by subtle and unceasing intrigue. Mary was induced to marry Lord Darnley, a protestant, who suspecting Rizzio, an Italian musician, of a criminal intercourse with the queen, had him murdered in her presence. Darnley perished shortly after, and Mary united herself to Earl Bothwell, who was with good reason believed to have planned the murder of her late husband. She was afterwards compelled to resign the crown to her infant son, James VI., which she did in 1567, and then fled to England, where she suffered as has been stated. Cabal distressed Scotland throughout the minority of James; but before he ascended the throne of England, he had assumed the government and restored tranquillity. James's worst failing was an absurd affection for worthless favorites, by whom, principally, he was induced to adopt various irregular expedients for the purpose of raising money. The most remarkable occurrences of his reign were the gunpowder treason plot, which was formed by some papists in 1605, for the destruction of the king and parliament, and discovered when on the point of being carried into effect; and the struggles between James and the House of Commons, which assembly laid claim to extensive privileges. The principles of liberty began to be duly appreciated and understood, and they acquired additional clearness and weight from the discussions during this reign. The Commons having presented a remonstrance on the state of public affairs, the king sharply reprimanded them, and denied their right to interfere. The commons renewed their remonstrance. The king told them that they held their privileges as a favour from the crown. They replied by a protestation, that they were the birth-right and inheritance of the subjects of England. The king tore the protestation out of their journals, dissolved the parliament, and imprisoned several of the members. This occurred in 1621. James endeavoured to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but without success; and his enmity to puritanism caused some of that persuasion to plant the colony of New England. His policy was uniformly pacific, but he was forced into a war with Spain, immediately prior to his death, through the misconduct of the duke of Buckingham, while on a visit with prince Charles at the court of Madrid, with a view to a marriage with the Infanta. The English people, from their hatred of the catholics, rejoiced in the rupture; and James entered into a confederacy with France and Holland for repressing the ambition of the house of Austria. James substituted the English laws for the ancient customs in Ireland; and during his reign the title of baronet was created and sold to raise supplies. In 1625, a British settlement, the first in the West Indies, was formed in Barbadoes. James died during that year, and was succeeded by his son, Charles I., who had unfortunately imbibed opinions with regard to royal prerogative, similar to those of his father; and like him, also, was influenced by the profligate Villiers, duke of Buckingham. The parliament, contrary to the expectation of the king, showed from the first a determination to restrain the power of the crown, and to oppose the favourite. The first parliament, which assembled in 1625, complained of grievances, and voted only a supply totally inadequate to the public necessities at home, and the support of the war with Spain, which had been commenced. An immediate dissolution was the consequence, and the king had recourse to forced loans. Money, however, was soon wanted, and a second parliament was summoned in the next year. The commons impeached the duke of Buckingham. The managers of the impeachment were imprisoned, but afterwards released. The commons demanded a more vigorous repression of the catholics; prepared a remonstrance against the taxes on tonnage and poundage; and the session ended with a dissolution. The king continued to exact

the payment of poundage and tonnage without authority from parliament, and used other irregular means for raising a revenue. War was declared against France in 1627, without any reason being assigned; and in 1628, the king *confirmed the petition of right;* by which act of conciliation he gained a supply. In the same year Buckingham was assassinated, the murderer alone being privy to the crime. In the next year, after a tumultuous meeting, the House of Commons adopted a remonstrance, denouncing Papists and Arminians, and denying the king's right to levy poundage and tonnage-money. An imprisonment of some of the members, actively concerned in passing the remonstrance, increased the popularity of their proceedings. Charles now resolved to reign without a parliament, and did so for eleven years, resorting to the most pernicious expedients to raise a revenue. In 1637, John Hampden resisted the payment of ship-money levied by authority of the crown only, and the question was argued before the twelve judges, eight of whom gave judgment against him, and four were in his favour. In the same year Charles attempted to force upon Scotland the English liturgy and church ceremonies: the consequences were, a solemn covenant or bond of union amongst the presbyterians in 1638, the abolition of episcopacy, and open war. A parliament was at length summoned in 1640, and the commons evinced increased discontent and boldness. They impeached Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, and the earl of Strafford, the ablest of the king's ministers. In 1641, Strafford was tried upon the impeachment, but his accusers were unable to establish their charges against him: a bill of attainder was then introduced, and carried; Charles gave his assent, and Strafford was beheaded. Laud was executed with equal injustice in 1645. The power of the parliament was now enormous, and in order to give it permanence, a bill was passed, providing that it should not be dissolved or prorogued without its own consent. The courts of high commission and the star chamber were abolished. In the same year, 1641, a rebellion broke out in Ireland, and great numbers of the English settled there were massacred. The authority of the parliament was increased by an imprudent step of the king, who went to the house of commons, took the chair of the speaker, and demanded the persons of five members who were charged with treason. At length, the commons assumed powers hitherto peculiarly belonging to the crown; on which Charles retired to York, and a civil war commenced in 1642. Battles were fought with various success, and negociations were opened to no purpose, the demands of the parliamentary commissioners amounting to nothing less than the abolition of kingly power. The royalists were finally defeated at Naseby, in 1645. Charles took refuge with the Scotch, who delivered him up to the parliament upon payment of a sum of money. The most powerful faction was now known by the name of the Independents, and Oliver Cromwell had risen to the chief influence among them. He soon got possession of the person of the king, deprived the parliament of all real authority, surrounded the place of its meeting with an armed force, and by what he called purging it, left only that body which was afterwards known by the name of the *Rump*. The existence of Charles, was now the only bar to the consummation of Cromwell's ambition. It did not long continue. One hundred and fifty commissioners were appointed to try the king on a charge of treason. The king refused to acknowledge their jurisdiction, was sentenced to die, and *was beheaded at Whitehall, on January* 30, 1649. England was declared a *commonwealth*, but Cromwell had no competitor in power. Charles II, was proclaimed in Ireland by the Marquis of Ormond, but the Irish were overcome by Cromwell. In 1651, Charles II. was crowned at Scone, and marched into England with a Scottish army. He was overthrown at Worcester, and fled to France. In 1653, Cromwell expelled the Rump, and without the form of an election, assembled a parliament, called *Barebone's parliament*, from the name of one of the fanatics who composed it. They soon resigned their authority to Cromwell, who was proclaimed *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth, in* 1653. He obtained a recognition of his title from a a new parliament; formed a new house of Peers; refused the royal dignity; but exercised almost despotic power. He ruled with vigour both in foreign and domestic affairs, and died in 1658. He was succeeded by his son Richard, who, proving incompetent, was compelled to resign in the following year, and the principal authority was assumed by the officers of the army. In 1660 a convention was assembled and the *royal family was recalled to the throne in the person of Charles II.*, who was proclaimed with the concurrence of the nation, and principally through the agency of General Monk, afterwards Duke of Albemarle. During the period of the commmonwealth, the excise was established; the navigation laws were passed; the English flag was triumphant abroad; and Jamaica and Dunkirk taken possession of. Ireland continued to be the scene of much discord and frequent insurrection.

Philip II. reigned in SPAIN from 1556 to 1598. He was a tyrannical and superstitious prince; and besides losing a part of the Netherlands, as already noticed, he left his kingdom greatly impoverished. After the loss of the Spanish Armada, he made several other attempts on England and Ireland, and in all proved entirely unsuccessful. The miseries arising from his rule were extended to Portugal, which was reduced to a Spanish province in 1580. He was succeeded by his son Philip III. who was entirely ruled by the duke of Lerma, and the clergy. The Moriscoes, or descendants of the Moors, amounting to nearly one million of souls, an ingenious, peaceable, and industrious class, were most impoliticly and unjustly expelled. Philip III. died in 1621, and the reign of his son Philip IV. was imprudent and injurious. Spain lost her ascendancy in Italy; Portugal threw off her yoke; and the independence of Holland was formally acknowledged. The Spanish armies and fleets were every where defeated; and the Americas in vain poured their wealth into the enervated country.

Unfortunately for PORTUGAL, Sebastian had been educated by the Jesuits. At their solicitation he led an expedition against the infidels of Fez and Morocco, and was defeated and slain at Alcazar in 1578. Henry I. brother to John III. succeeded to the throne, and he dying in 1580, without issue, Anthony of Navarre was proclaimed king by the people. Philip II. of Spain, however, also laid claim to the kingdom, defeated Anthony, and *reduced Portugal to a Spanish province.* The Spaniards oppressed and plundered the country, and the Portuguese longed for an opportunity to free themselves from so odious and destructive a domination. The unfortunate reign of Philip IV. presented the desired occasion, and Portugal released itself from Spanish dominion. *John, duke of Braganza,* who was descended in a direct line from Alphonso, the natural son of John I.—was raised to the throne. Portugal suffered greatly during its subjection to the Spanish crown. The Hollanders being excluded from all intercourse with Lisbon, turned their attention towards the Indies themselves. They despoiled Portugal of the Moluccas, and of almost all its possessions in the East, and rendered their own ports, instead of Lisbon, the emporium for the valuable commerce of India. John IV. maintained himself successfully against Spain, and the remaining Portuguese colonies declared unhesitatingly in his favour. He died in 1656, when his son Alphonso IV. ascended the throne.

Several changes occurred in ITALY. Gregory XIII. was elected to the Holy See in 1572, and he introduced many wholesome reformations, and corrected the calendar. He was succeeded by Sixtus V. who was a bold and powerful pontiff. Clement VIII. added Ferrara to the papal

territories in 1598, and in 1631, Urban VIII. purchased Urbino, and made an unfortunate attempt upon Parma. His successor Innocent X., succeeded in extorting the duchy of Castro from Parma; and under Alexander VIII. the papal dominions reached their greatest extent by the acquisition of Ronciglione. These last three popes condemned the doctines of Jansenius. The precedence of Cosmo I. of Florence, being questioned by the duke of Ferrara,—the pope created him *grand Duke of Tuscany*, in 1569, and in 1576, Maximilian II. accorded that title to Francis de Medicis, the brother and successor of Cosmo, on the condition that he acknowledged it to proceed from the emperor, as king of Italy, and not from the Holy See. He was succeeded by Ferdinand I. who amassed immense wealth by commercial speculations. Under Cosmo II. who reigned from 1608 to 1621, Leghorn began to flourish. His son Frederick II. was a minor when called to the throne, and during his minority the treasury was emptied in furnishing subsidies to Spain and Austria, and the grand duchy fell under the influence of France. In 1627, the duke of Mantua died, and he leaving no direct heir, Charles of Nevers, the duke of Savoy, Spain, and the empire, strove to acquire his possessions. France successfully supported Charles of Nevers, who was confirmed in the duchy, and Spain lost her ascendancy in Upper Italy, which was transferred to France. The Venetians assisted in throwing off the Spanish yoke, and were also frequently engaged in war against the Turks, who deprived them of Cyprus and Candia, and threatened their destruction. Genoa continued independent but not powerful. Savoy was compelled to cede Bresse, Bugey, and Gex, to the French, in 1607, and on the duke pretending to the succession to Mantua in 1627, he was expelled from his dominions by France, and died of grief. His successor was glad to regain his hereditary possessions by renouncing the new claim. Naples and Sicily continued under the sway of Spain. In 1647, an extraordinary rebellion was raised in Naples by Massaniello, a fisherman, who possessed absolute power for a short time, but was soon destroyed, and within a year the authority of Spain was restored.

At the commencement of this period, Soliman the Great still swayed the OTTOMAN EMPIRE. In 1565 he made a powerful effort to reduce Malta, but his forces were bravely repulsed by the Grand Master, Valette, and the Knights. In the following year Soliman died, and from his death may be dated the decay of the Ottoman Empire. The Sultans began to seclude themselves in their harems, abandoning the government of the empire to their grand Viziers. The governors of provinces assumed the character of merely tributary princes, rather than that of officers of the empire; and the power of the Janissaries became so extravagant that they often disposed of the throne. In 1570, however, Cyprus was taken from the Venetians; but in the following year a great Turkish fleet was defeated off Lepanto, by the Spaniards, the Venetians, and the Genoese, under Don John of Austria, and the glory of the Ottoman navy was eclipsed. Bagdad was conquered from Persia in 1638, by Murad IV, who was a warlike prince, and begun the Candian war against Venice, in 1645. In 1648, Mahomet IV. ascended the throne. He erected the new Dardanelles in 1659, and in the next year chastised Ragoczy, ruler of Transylvania, and reduced Peterwardein.

In AFRICA, the states of Barbary, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, remained without improvement. Their governors acknowledged the supremacy of the Turkish Sultan, and their corsairs continued to inflict dreadful ravages on the shores of the Mediterranean. Morocco continued under its own emperors, and though a country without influence on others, it was capable of protecting itself.

Shah Tamasp reigned in PERSIA till 1582, when he died, and a struggle between two of his sons, Ismail and Hyder Murza, for the succession, threw the empire into confusion. Ismail prevailed, but he soon occasioned his death by a debauch, and Mahomed Murza, the eldest son of Tamasp ascended the throne. His reign was short and inglorious, and in 1585 he was deposed by Murshud Kooli Khan, in favour of *Shah Abbas*, who acquired the title of *the Great*, and restored the glory of the Persian empire. He recovered all the lost territory, and established tranquillity throughout his dominions. Ispahan was his capital, which he greatly embellished. In 1622, assisted by the English, he deprived the Portuguese of the isle of Ormuz. An English Ambassador appeared at the Persian court in 1627, and met with an honourable reception, but the ministers of Abbas defeated every attempt to establish a beneficial commerce between the two nations. In his domestic character Abbas appears in an execrable light. He died in 1628, and it has been observed by historians, that when he "ceased to live, Persia ceased to prosper." His grandson, Shah Saffee, was a cruel and rapacious tyrant. His reign was inglorious. He lost Bagdad to the Turks, and Kandahar revolted in favour of the sovereign of Delhi. He died in 1641, and was succeeded by his son Abbas II. In 1648, Kandahar was recovered. Abbas II. was remarkable for his toleration in religious matters. He reigned beyond the conclusion of this period.

In INDIA the house of Baber continued on the throne of Delhi, and advanced the glory of the Mogul empire to its greatest height. Akbar the Great, the son of Humaioon, successfully invaded the Deccan, and conquered Bengal, Orissa, and Oude. He died in 1605, and his son Selim took the title of 'Lord of the World'. He was triumphant in his external wars, but unfortunate in his domestic government. He was succeeded, in 1628, by his son Shah Jehan, who proved an able warrior, and added considerably to the extent of the empire, by the reduction of Berar, and important conquests in the Deccan. In 1658, Shah Jehan was deposed by his third son, AURENGZEBE, who was a cruel despot, but a renowned warrior, and ruled a greater empire in India than any of his predecessors. His reign extended beyond the conclusion of this period.—During the progress of these events the intercourse with Europe was greatly increased. At the close of the sixteenth century the Dutch under admiral Houtmann entered the Indian seas, and became the commercial rivals of the Portuguese, who had, until then, possessed the trade exclusively. The Dutch East India Company was formed, and they succeeded in establishing themselves at Malacca, and Ceylon;—Macassar, Cochin, Cananore, and other settlements on the coast of Malabar. The first English East India Company was formed in 1600, and in the next year they sent out their first venture. In 1612, they had established factories at Surat, Ahmedabad, Cambaya, and Goga; and in 1615 an English ambassador was received with favour by the Great Mogul. They then turned their attention to the Coromandel coast, and in 1640-1, erected Fort St. George at Madras, which was formed into a presidency in 1653-4. Immediately previous to this last event, the English acquired new and peculiar privileges in Bengal. They were however much harassed by the Dutch, who savagely destroyed their settlements in Amboyna.—The French made some feeble efforts to acquire a footing in India, which produced no important results.—The *Eastern Peninsula* remained without influence in history.

Out of the remnant of the Kin-Tartars, sprang a separate race called the Man-tchu Tartars, who finding the emperor of CHINA treated with contempt, *invaded the country*, and, after a long and arduous struggle, *succeeded in founding the Tsing dynasty about* 1644. The Jesuits found their way into China, and it is remarkable that two of the generals who fought in the Man-tchu Tartar war, professed Christianity.

A.D. 1783. INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

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NINETEENTH PERIOD.

FROM THE RESTORATION OF THE STUARTS IN ENGLAND, A. D. 1660, TO THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, A. D. 1783.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
The British Empire, embracing England, Scotland, Ireland - - Canada, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, &c. Jamaica, Antigua, Barbadoes - - Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, &c. - Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, - - - Bombay, Madras, &c. - - -	Crimson.
Denmark and Norway, possessing Iceland, Tranquebar, St. Croix - - St. Thomas, and St. John - -	Red.
Sweden, possessing part of Finland - Hither-Pomerania, Rugen - -	Brown.
The French Empire, embracing France and Navarre, Corsica, Guadaloupe Martinique, part of St. Domingo, &c. - Senegal, Goree, Guiana - - - Pondicherry, Chandenagore, &c. - Bourbon and Isle of France - -	Yellow.
The Republic of Holland, possessing - The United Provinces - - - Settlements in Malabar, Malacca & Africa; The Moluccas - - - - Part of Ceylon, Sumatra, &c. - - Surinam, Curacoa, St. Eustatius, &c. -	Orange.
The German Empire, with the Austrian Dominions, embracing - Germany - - - - Hungary, The Netherlands - - The Milanese, Part of Poland - -	Purple.
Prussia, with East Friesland - -	Yellow-Green.
Poland (ruled by Foreign Powers) -	Chocolate.
Italy, principal states, Savoy, Rome, Venice, Tuscany, Genoa, The Two Sicilies	Lilac.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
The Spanish Empire, embracing Spain, Majorca, Minorca, &c. - - New Spain, New Granada, Peru - Chili, La Plata, &c. - - - Louisiana, Florida, Cuba, Porto Rico - Trinidad, the Philippines, &c. - -	Light Blue.
The Portuguese Empire, embracing Portugal, Madeira, and Cape Verd Isles Brazil, Guiana, Settlements in Africa - Goa, Macao, &c. - - -	Dark Blue.
The Russian Empire, embracing Russia, Siberia, Kamtschatka - - Part of Finland, part of Poland, Livonia, &c. The territory between the Bog and the Dnieper - - - - The Crimea, Azof, &c. - - -	Dark Green.
The Ottoman Empire, embracing Roumelia, Bulgaria, the Morea - - Moldavia, Wallachia, Servia - Bosnia, Dalmatia (part), Albania - Asia Minor, Armenia (part), Syria - Egypt, Northern Africa - - - Cyprus, Candia, Negropont, &c. -	Green.
Persia (Eastern and Western) - -	Olive Green.
Hindoostan (Native Powers) - -	Grey.
The Chinese Empire, embracing China, the Corea, Mandshuria - - Mongolia, Little Bucharia; Tibet - Tonquin and Cochin China (tributary) - Formosa, Leoo-Keoo Isles - -	Light Brown.
The United States of America -	Pink.

LOUIS XIV., who acquired the name of the *Great*, was on the throne of FRANCE at the commencement of this period. On the death of Mazarine he fixed the duties of the several departments of the state, and chose his ministers with discrimination. Under the administration of Baptist Colbert the finances rapidly became flourishing; arts, commerce, and manufactures were encouraged, and the navy increased from a few frigates to thirty sail of the line; agriculture alone was neglected. Louis was ambitious, and desirous of glory, and his views extended with his means. Dunkirk was purchased from the English in 1662; in 1664, East and West India companies were established; and in 1665, Louis laid claim to the Netherlands. On his marriage with Maria Theresa of Spain he had renounced all claim to any part of her father's dominions, but Philip IV. dying, the court of Versailles asserted, that, notwithstanding the renunciation, Brabant ought to be possessed by Maria Theresa as eldest

with France, which have before been noticed, impoverished the republic, although its government was vigorous, and its navy and army sustained a high reputation. William III. was called to the throne of England in 1688, which produced a close union between the two countries in opposition to France. The Stadtholder died in 1702, and the succession of his heir, William Friso, was disallowed, but the grand pensionary Heinsius pursued the same line of policy until 1715, when by the peace of Utrecht and the barrier treaty, Holland acquired a line of frontier fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands. But these struggles materially diminished the wealth and security of Holland, and her power evidently declined. In 1729 she guaranteed the Pragmatic sanction, and during the succession war suffered greatly from the French arms. Alarmed for their existence, the united provinces appointed William IV. of Orange, Stadtholder, in 1747, and declared the dignity hereditary in his family. In the American war, Holland was opposed to Great Britain, of which Austria took advantage, and after dismantling the barrier towns made some territorial claims which were not settled during this period.

SWITZERLAND continued independent. An impulse was given to arts and manufactures, and the manners of the people assimilated more and more with those of the French.

During the reign of Charles X., SWEDEN was almost perpetually engaged in war with the other Northern powers. He died in 1660 and was succeeded by his son Charles XI. then a minor. Sweden became a member of the triple alliance; and afterwards, under the influence of French gold, declared war against Brandenburg and Denmark. The young king, on taking the direction of affairs, evinced courage and ability, but met with many reverses, and was glad to effect a peace and form an alliance with Prussia. Charles XI. died in 1697, and was succeeded by his son Charles XII. who was only fifteen years old. A regency was appointed, but the young monarch soon took upon himself the government, and evinced extraordinary powers. He was speedily assailed by Denmark, Russia, and Poland, and a northern war commenced in 1700. He compelled Denmark to conclude a peace the same year, and defeated an army of 60,000 Russians, at Narva, with 8,000 Swedes. He overran Poland, and, in 1706, placed Stanislaus Lesczensky on its throne. He marched against the Russians in 1707, and in 1709 experienced a total defeat at Pultowa. His army was annihilated, and he fled to the Turkish court and received protection. Although greatly assisted by the Turks, he did not return to his dominions until 1714, when he madly pursued the war and found Denmark, Poland, Russia, Prussia, and Hanover, leagued against him. The ambition of Peter of Russia, however, created discord among the allies, and he united with Sweden in 1718. Charles invaded Norway the same year, and was killed before the fortress of Frederickshall. He left his country impoverished both in wealth and dominion, and was succeeded by his younger sister Ulrica Eleonora, who was elected by the nation. That princess was not calculated to restore Sweden to its lost supremacy in the north. She preferred the study of literature to that of politics, and in 1720 resigned the government to her husband Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, when the monarchy was rendered elective, and the king's power controlled by a council of state. In the same year Pomerania Anterior was ceded to Prussia, and Denmark for a valuable consideration retained the right to Sound-dues. By the peace of Nystadt in 1721, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Wiburg, and part of Karelia, were ceded to Russia. Sweden now became a prey to two factions, which were called the *Hats*, and *Caps*, but its condition was nevertheless improved. Influenced by France, Frederick declared war against Russia in 1740, but was unsuccessful, and constrained by the peace of Abo, 1743, to adopt Adolphus Frederick of Holstein Gottorp as his successor. He died in 1751, and Adolphus in vain attempted to extend the royal authority. He died in 1771, and was succeeded by his son Gustavus III. The new monarch possessed a most insinuating address, and was an able orator. He speedily swept away most of the restrictions which had been imposed on the royal authority.

DENMARK, like the other powers of Europe, knew but little tranquillity during this period. Frederick III., an excellent prince, died in 1670, and was succeeded by his son Christian V. The commerce of Denmark was extended, but her strength was wasted in a fruitless war with Sweden. Christian died in 1699, and his son Frederick IV, attempting to take advantage of the youth of Charles XII. of Sweden, was greatly reduced and compelled to seek a peace. He leagued with the other Northern powers against Sweden in 1709, and recovered the losses sustained in the previous war. The internal condition of Denmark was much improved during the latter part of this period, and its rulers wisely abstained from participating in the continental wars. An Asiatic company was formed, and St. Croix was purchased in 1733. Sleswick was re-united to the Danish crown to the injury of Sweden. The differences were not settled until 1773, when Denmark ceded Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

The Poles opposed the Turks with great perseverance and valour, but POLAND itself was a prey to confusion. The power of the nobility was greatly injurious to the general welfare, and rendered the name of king a mere empty title. John Casimir abdicated in 1668; his successor died in 1674, and John Sobieski, who had greatly distinguished himself against the Turks, was elected. He died in 1697, when Frederick Augustus, elector of Saxony, ascended the throne, with still more restricted powers. In 1706 he was dethroned by Charles XII. of Sweden, and restored by Peter of Russia in 1709. Poland had made little or no advance in arts or commerce, and the wretched construction of its government, which had always been a source of evil, was felt still more severely as the neighbouring powers advanced in civilization and importance. Augustus continued under the influence of Russia, and on his death in 1733, that power forcibly established Frederick Augustus II. (of Saxony) on the throne, to the exclusion of Stanislaus Lesczinsky, who was supported by France. Poland was now completely dependent. Its sovereign was unable to command respect abroad, or to maintain order at home; and on the death of Augustus II. in 1763, Catharine II. of Russia raised Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski, a Polish noble, to the throne. He proved but a weak prince, and after a variety of contests, religious and political, the first dismemberment of Poland took place in 1772.

Notwithstanding several rebellions, HUNGARY continued subject to the house of Austria. The crown was declared to be hereditary in 1687. In the following year an attempt was made to reduce it to a province of Germany, but this excited discontents, which were not allayed until 1711, when the emperor Charles VI. confirmed the ancient Hungarian privileges.

In the course of this period, RUSSIA rose from insignificance into power. Czar Alexis reigned until 1676. He acquired Smolensk, Tschernsgow, and Severia, from Poland, and greatly improved the culture of his dominions. His son Feodore III. succeeded him, but he dying, named his half-brother Peter, as his successor, in preference to Peter's elder brother Iwan. His sister Sophia aimed at dominion, and induced the Strelitzes, a body resembling the Janissaries, to support her; but Peter soon reduced and punished them; and Iwan dying, he assumed the sole authority both in name and in reality in 1689. The young czar having restored tranquillity, commenced a tour through civilized Europe, in order that he might acquire a knowledge of mechanics, the arts, manufactures, and sciences. He worked as a labourer in the dock-yards of Holland and England, and on being recalled to Russia in 1698 in consequence of an

insurrection of the Strelitzes, he abolished that corps and organized his army on the European model. He also introduced into Russia great numbers of artizans, and effected mighty improvements. He assisted Augustus, king of Poland, against Charles XII.; and though defeated at Narva, he wiped out the stain by his victory at Pultowa. He selected his ablest officer, Menzikoff, from a low station, and chose his czarina, Catherine, from among some Livonian captives. She was of low origin, but possessed a powerful genius. At the pressing invitation of Charles XII. Turkey had declared war against Russia, and Peter was surrounded by 250,000 enemies, when Catherine, by her presence of mind, brought about a negociation, and the czar was preserved. He then renewed the war against Sweden, and was afterwards induced to unite with that power because the allies opposed his wish to acquire Mecklenburg. Peter now began to reap the fruits of his industry and exertions. Immense tracts of country which had previously been deserts were populated; towns were fast springing into existence; a navy was formed; manufactures and commerce flourished; and the city of St. Petersburg, which he founded in 1703, was rapidly rising into importance. The conclusion of his reign was not less extraordinary than the commencement, and he has been most justly styled the *Great*. He assumed the title of emperor in 1721, and Europe acknowledged his right to the distinction. By a war with Persia he added Daghestan, Schizwan, Ghilan, Derbentin, and Baku, to his territories; and he continued to improve the internal condition of his empire. In his domestic affairs, however, Peter was unfortunate. His son was tried, condemned to death, and expired suddenly. The emperor died in 1725, and was succeeded by his widow, Catherine I., who died after reigning two years. Peter II. the grandson of Peter the Great, then ascended the throne; but he dying in 1730, Anna Iwanowna, niece of Peter the Great, was declared empress. Of the part which Russia took in the wars between the christian powers sufficient mention has been made. She was also engaged in war with Turkey; but by a peace made in 1739, all conquests were restored, and the empress died the next year. She was succeeded by her grand-nephew, Iwan III.; but a revolution speedily took place in favor of Elizabeth, youngest daughter of Peter the Great, and Iwan was dethroned and imprisoned. By the peace of Abo, Russia acquired Finland, to the Kymen; and Nyslot. Elizabeth died in 1762, when Peter III., son of Anna Petrowna and Charles Frederick of Holstein-Gottorp, became emperor. Designing to divorce his consort Catherine of Anhalt-Zerbet, he was dethroned in favor of that princess; who under the title of Catherine II. greatly increased the power of Russia. Besides acquiring by the first partition of Poland an addition of territory, she took possession of Azof, the Crimea, Taman, and the territory between the Bog and the Dnieper. In her internal government of the empire, Catherine II. was not less prosperous. She issued a new and more improved code of laws; cities were to be seen rising in different parts; and commerce rapidly increased.

PRUSSIA was raised into a kingdom by Frederick, the son of Frederick William the Great. In 1701, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, to which he had heretofore in a certain degree been subject, he placed the crown upon his own head and on that of his consort; and was soon after acknowledged by the other christian powers. He died in 1713, and was succeeded by his son Frederick William I. By the peace of Utrecht, Prussia acquired Spanish Guelderland, and the sovereignty of Neufchâtel and Vallengin. Frederick William I. then entered into the league against Sweden; and by a peace made at Stockholm in 1720, Prussia acquired Stettin, part of Pomerania, with Wollin, and Usedom. Frederick William I. was a most able prince, and on his death in 1740, left his son and successor, Frederick II. in a position to maintain his perfect independence. The young king proved fully adequate to the task, and by his wisdom, both in the field and in the cabinet, he justly acquired the name of *Frederick the Great*. His conduct in the succession war has already been noticed; and his triumphs in the seven years' war were of a still more splendid description. One of the objects of that war was to reduce the king of Prussia to the rank of a Margrave of Brandenburg; but Frederick gained nine great battles, and made Prussia feared and respected. He took part in the first dismemberment of Poland; by which Prussia acquired the whole of Polish Prussia.

A memorable revolution was effected in ENGLAND during this period. Charles began his reign by choosing his ministers wisely. The most eminent amongst them was Hyde, afterwards Earl of Clarendon. The Parliament, which had been styled a convention, resumed its usual title as soon as the royal authority was re-established; an act of indemnity, with few exceptions, was passed; and the king's revenue was liberally provided. The settlement of the church was left to the king; the bishops and clergy were restored to their sees and livings, and the use of the liturgy was resumed. In Scotland and Ireland also the restoration of the royal authority was rapidly effected. Charles married the Infanta of Portugal in 1662, and received Tangier and Bombay, as part of her jointure. In the same year he sold Dunkirk to the French for his own private advantage. In 1664, hostilities were commenced against Holland. War was formally declared in the following year, and Holland formed an alliance with France. Several obstinate sea-fights occurred, but without any decisive result. In 1667 the Dutch fleet insulted the coasts of England, burned and took some ships at Sheerness, sailed up the Thames to Tilbury, and entered the Medway. This hastened peace, which was concluded the same year; England acquiring New York, and Holland Surinam. Such had been the dissoluteness of Charles's life and the profligacy of his expenditure, that discontent had now become general among the people; and in the hope of retrieving something of his popularity he countenanced the accusation and banishment of his prime-minister, the earl of Clarendon, whose daughter the duke of York had married. Another effort for the same purpose was made by the formation of the triple alliance against France; but Charles soon afterwards relapsed, and engaged in a project for subverting the established religion and constitution of his kingdom. This scheme he entrusted only to Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, who from the initial letters of their names have been called the *cabal*. In furtherance of this design Charles entered into a secret treaty with Louis XIV. The sums voted by parliament for preparations against France were squandered for very different purposes, and for eighteen months all payments out of the exchequer were stopped, and the money applied to the exigencies of the government. In 1672 war was declared against the Dutch; and a proclamation was issued, suspending the penal laws against non-conformists and recusants. The nation had now become alarmed at the tendency of the court towards popery, and parliament on its meeting shewed so much discontent that the king revoked his declaration of indulgence. The cabal was broken up by the secession of Ashley, who had been created earl of Shaftesbury. In 1674 a separate peace was made with the Dutch, and four years afterwards a general pacification was concluded. The Scottish covenanters, taking advantage of the discontents of England, took up arms, murdered archbishop Sharp, but were defeated at Bothwell-bridge in 1679. The house of commons passed a bill, excluding the duke of York, as a papist, from the throne; and insisted upon it, although it was rejected by the lords; and there being no prospect of an accommodation, parliament was again dissolved in 1681. In Scotland the parliament shewed the utmost submission to the king's will; and in England the royal authority had the ascendancy. In 1683, various plots were discovered, on the ground of

participation in which, lord Russel and Algernon Sidney were executed. Charles II. died in 1684. The duke of York was proclaimed king by the title of James II., and after declaring that his brother had lived and died a papist, he became, after his example, a pensioner of the French king, and attempted to restore popery with the most blind and indiscriminating zeal. Having suppressed the rebellions of Monmouth in England, and Argyle in Scotland, he took upon himself to dispense with the tests required by law; new-modelled the army in Ireland, and dismissed many protestant officers; publicly countenanced monks and jesuits; sent an ambassador to Rome, and received a nuncio from the pope; commanded the clergy to read a new declaration of liberty of conscience; and on some of the bishops presenting a petition against it, caused them to be indicted for a seditious libel. They were acquitted. These proceedings led to the union of both parties against his measures, and the nation looked for relief to William, prince of Orange, who had married Mary, the daughter of James. That prince landed in Devonshire in November 1688, and shortly after James II. retired to France. The throne was declared vacant; and it was resolved by the lords and commons in convention, that the prince and princess of Orange should be king and queen of England, but that the sole regal power should be in the prince only, in the name of both. King William III. then ascended the throne; the convention became a parliament; the bill of rights and the act of settlement were passed; and general toleration granted. Episcopacy was abolished in Scotland; and the authority of the new king acknowledged there. In the meantime, James having obtained assistance from France, landed in Ireland; where he met with great support, and William went over to oppose him in person. James was defeated near the Boyne in 1690, and again fled to France. England and Holland now became closely united against France, and in 1692 their fleets gained the celebrated victory of La Hogue. Queen Mary died in 1695, and in 1701 the succession to the English crown, after Anne, Mary's sister, was settled upon Sophia of Hanover, granddaughter of James I. The Jacobites, or partisans of James, encouraged by France, engaged in several plots against William's authority, but they failed in all. The parliament, although attached to the king, firmly resisted every attempt to increase the standing army. William took an active part in the Spanish succession war, and died in 1702. Anne succeeded to the crown, and prosecuted the war with vigour. The duke of Marlborough distinguished himself by the victory of Blenheim in 1704, and by that of Ramilies in 1706; and possessed great influence until 1710, when he was dismissed from the office of secretary of state, and soon afterwards entirely stripped of his employments. By the peace of Utrecht in 1711, England gained Gibraltar, Minorca, and entire possession of St. Kitts, Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, and Hudson's Bay and Straits. The UNION BETWEEN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND, as it at present exists, was formed July 22, 1706. Anne died in 1714. *She was the last of the Stuarts who filled the throne of England.* During the latter part of her reign she had solicited her brother, the pretender, to change his religion, with a view to his ascending the throne; but he resolutely refused, and on the queen's death, George, elector of Hanover, the son of Sophia, and the first monarch of the dynasty of Brunswick, was proclaimed king. The beginning of his reign was marked by much popular agitation in England; and an insurrection took place in Scotland in favor of the pretender, who landed in that country, and was secretly assisted by France. Before the end, however, of 1716 the rebellion was entirely suppressed. The object of one of cardinal Alberoni's intrigues was to place the pretender on the throne of England, which induced the British cabinet to take an active part in the quadruple alliance. Attempts of the same kind were made by the court of Sweden. The English fleet under Sir George Byng, discomfited that of Spain; the schemes of Alberoni were discovered and frustrated; and Philip of Spain was obliged to accede to the terms prescribed by the confederates. In 1722, a new attempt was made in favor of the pretender, but it proved abortive. In this reign, septennial were substituted for triennial parliaments. George I. died in 1727; and was succeeded by his son George II. The violent conduct of Spain in endeavouring to suppress a contraband trade carried on with her American colonies, produced a declaration of war in 1739; and Great Britain supported by arms her pretensions to "a free sea and no search." Sir Robert Walpole, who had been minister for more than twenty years, resigned in 1742. The part taken by England in support of Maria Theresa, has been already mentioned. In 1744, war was declared with France, and Charles Edward, the son of the pretender, countenanced by the French court, landed in Scotland in 1745; when a rebellion in that country in favor of the Stuarts assumed a serious character. The rebels, however, were totally routed in 1746, at Culloden, by the duke of Cumberland; and Charles Edward escaped to France. By the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, France agreed to expel the pretender and his family from her dominions. In 1754, war was renewed with France in consequence of some disputes respecting the boundaries of Nova Scotia; and the seven years' war commenced in 1756. England and Prussia contended with alternate good and ill success against France, Austria, Spain, and Holland, on the continent of Europe. In Asia and America, and in naval conflicts, the arms of Great Britain were generally victorious. In 1759, the conquest of Canada was accomplished by general Wolfe. It was during this reign that the foundation of the great British empire in the east was laid. George II. died in 1760; and was succeeded by his grand-son George III. Great successes having been achieved by the British arms in the West Indies, and France and her allies having failed in their projects on the continent; the peace of Paris, or Fontainbleau, was concluded in 1763. In 1765, an attempt was made to impose taxes on the North American colonies, who were not represented in parliament; and who opposed the measure so vehemently, that the stamp act, the obnoxious tax, was repealed in the following year. In 1767, lord North became chancellor of the exchequer, and in three years afterwards premier. Fresh attempts were made to tax the colonies, but they continued to resist, and every impost was withdrawn except a duty upon tea. On attempting to enforce this, an open rupture took place, and hostilities were commenced and the battle of Bunker's hill fought, in 1775. Thirteen of the states united together, and after a contest of seven years' duration, under the conduct of George Washington, achieved their independence. They were assisted by France, as before noticed, and a peace was concluded at Versailles, in 1783; when the thirteen United States of America were acknowledged as free, sovereign, and independent states. During the American war, discontent was very prevalent in Ireland; and revolutionary principles were acquiring increased influence up to the close of this period. Ireland was admitted to a free trade in 1780, it having hitherto been under similar restrictions to those imposed on foreign powers; and in 1782, it was declared independent of the British parliament, possessing a parliament and court of its own.

SPAIN presents a miserable picture during this period. Her throne was occupied by weak princes, who were ruled by inefficient or corrupt ministers. She was enervated by the immense wealth acquired in her American possessions; and dismembered by her ambitious and more energetic neighbours. Philip IV. died in 1665, and was succeeded by his son Charles II. a minor. In 1688, Spain was compelled to acknowledge the independence of Portugal. When the king took upon himself the

government, affairs underwent no improvement; and his next heir dying in 1699, Charles was succeeded in 1700 by Philip V. of the house of Bourbon. Hence arose the succession war, which has already been mentioned. Spain endured all the miseries of internal war, until the peace of Rastadt in 1714; when Philip V.'s right to the throne was generally recognised, but he retained only Spain and the Indies. Philip V. was entirely influenced by Elizabeth of Parma and cardinal Alberoni, whose ambitious projects for the recovery of the ceded Italian dominions caused the quadruple alliance. Alberoni became the victim of his own intrigues; and was disgraced. Philip V. died in 1746, and was succeeded by Ferdinand VI., who acquired Placenza and Guastalla for his son Philip, and encouraged commerce and manufactures. In 1759 he was succeeded by Charles III., who banished the jesuits. As the ally of France, Spain participated in the American war, but she derived no honor from her exertions. Her principal success was the taking of Minorca from the English, which she retained at the peace; besides all Florida. During the reign of Charles, some wholesome reformations were introduced into Spanish America. In the preceding reigns the misgovernment had been wretched, and Spain derived but little benefit from her magnificent possessions. New and more satisfactory divisions of the country were made. Besides New Spain and Peru, New Granada and La Plata were constituted vice-royalties; and Caraccas, Guatemala, and Sonora, were made independent governments. The courts of justice were reformed, especially in New Spain; free trade was permitted between the colonies, the galleons were superseded by registered vessels, and regular packet boats were established.

The independence of PORTUGAL being recognised by Spain, she effected a peace with Holland by the sacrifice of her East Indian possessions. Peter II. reigned from 1683 till 1703, and at first took part with France in the Spanish succession war, but afterwards formed an alliance and commercial treaty with England, which has kept the two powers in intimate connection ever since. Peter II. was succeeded by John V., and Portugal, by the treaty of Utrecht, acquired the territory north of the Amazon as far as the Yaper. John V. received the title of *Rex Fidelissimus* from the pope, and reigned until 1750, when he was succeeded by Joseph Emanuel. He reserved lands in South America in order to weaken the power of the nobles; and in 1752, it was discovered that the jesuits had formed a great empire in Paraguay. In 1759, some members of that order were charged with attempting to assassinate the king, and the whole body was expelled the kingdom. In the seven years' war Portugal lost nothing. Joseph Emanuel dying in 1777, Maria Francisca Isabel, ascended the throne. The nobility and clergy recovered their influence and held the people in a gloomy state of ignorance. The queen was absorbed in devotional exercises, but the commercial relations with England were nevertheless maintained.

ITALY possessed but little political importance. Her cities were the scenes of luxurious pleasure and intrigue, and some of her fairest provinces were given to strangers. The Milanese, or rather Lombardy, was ceded to Austria in 1715, and she maintained possession of it to the close of this period. GENOA, although it suffered considerable losses, was still independent. SAVOY became the most powerful state in Upper Italy. In 1713 it acquired Montserrat, and in 1720 Sardinia, with the title of king. Its possessions were still further increased in 1743, by an addition of part of the Milanese. Tuscany was adjudged to the duke of Lorraine (afterwards the emperor Francis I.), and descended to his second son, Peter Leopold, on the condition that it should never form an integral part of the Austrian dominions. VENICE lost Candia, but maintained its other possessions, together with several places in Dalmatia. The PAPAL DOMINIONS remained entire, but the influence of the pope was greatly diminished. Clement XV. rendered his pontificate remarkable by abolishing the order of the jesuits in 1773. His successor, Pontus VI. drained the Pontine marshes, but by so doing he deranged his finances. In 1735, the TWO SICILIES were ceded to Don Carlos of Spain, on the condition of their never being united to the Spanish monarchy. On his being raised to the crown of Spain in 1759, he was succeeded by his third son Ferdinand IV. The clergy were restrained, but the people, especially in Sicily, were impoverished and oppressed by the nobles.

The dominions of the OTTOMAN EMPIRE were much circumscribed during this period. Muhammed IV. resigned the sovereignty of the Cossacks to Russia in 1680. In a few years afterwards, the Turks were driven out of Hungary, and Muhammed IV. was deposed, in consequence of his vices, in 1687. The throne was successively filled by Soliman III. Achmet II. and Mustafa II. Mustafa was defeated at Zentha by prince Eugene, which led to the peace of Carlowitz. He was deposed in 1702, and Achmet III. was raised to the throne by the Janissaries, who exercised the most unbounded and licentious power. Achmet received Charles XII. with favor; and at his instigation renewed the war with Russia, and regained Azof; but he neglected to take advantage of the Spanish succession war. In 1755 he took the Morea from the Venetians, which, after the peace, served as a pretext for the renewal of war by Austria. Prince Eugene defeated the armies of the Porte, and peace was concluded at Passarowitz in 1718, when Turkey retained the Morea, and ceded Belgrade, Temeswar, and Wallachia as far as the Aluta, to Austria; and frontier towns in Albania and Dalmatia, to Venice. Of the subsequent transactions sufficient particulars have already been given. The sultans continued their despotic sway, and sustained many losses in their wars with Austria and Russia; many of the pashas or governors of distant provinces, acquired so much power that they frequently disputed the authority of the Porte; and thus the empire was reduced in strength, both by internal and foreign assailants.

In AFRICA the STATES OF BARBARY still continued tributary to Constantinople, but the authority of the sultan was more nominal than real. MOROCCO maintained its independence. Of the rest of Africa it is only necessary to say, that the slave trade was carried on by England, Portugal, Spain, Holland, and France, to a frightful extent; and that those powers had settlements and forts on the western and eastern coasts.

PERSIA was in itself a flourishing empire, but the sophys or kings were despots without vigour, stupified by the effeminacy of the seraglio, and governed by eunuchs. Rebellions were frequent, and the sophy was besieged in his capital in 1722, and submitted to a rebel. While Persia was thus a victim to a barbarous usurper, with the Turks on the one hand and the Russians on the other, taking advantage of her situation, the celebrated Nadir, or Tamasp Kouli-khan, appeared. The son of a shepherd, he soon raised himself from that rank, and in 1736, became king of Persia, by the name of Shah-Nadir. He compelled the Turks to restore all their conquests except Bagdad, and carried his arms successfully into India. He reduced Delhi, acquired possession of three kingdoms in Hindoostan, and imposed tribute upon others. He returned to Persia with an immense booty, and after chastising the Usbek sovereign of Bockhara, and the ruler of Khaurism, he spent some months in festivities at Mushed, his capital. Being wounded by a concealed assassin, his suspicions fell upon his eldest son Presa-Kouli, whom he deprived of sight. He now became a cruel, avaricious, and gloomy despot, and was conspired against by some of his principal officers, and slain by Salah Bey, the captain of his guards, in 1747. Nadir was succeeded by his nephew Ali; who after a short and inglorious reign, was dethroned and deprived of sight by his brother Ibrahim. The empire than became a scene of confusion. Almost every provincial governor in western Persia declared himself independent; and eastern Persia

(Kandahar and Kabul), was formed into an independent kingdom by Ahmed Khan, a chief of the Abdalle, a tribe of Afghans. After various conflicts, and a rapid succession of Shahs, Kerim Khan, of the tribe of Zund, established his authority over the greater part of western Persia. This happened about 1760, and Kerim reigned with great reputation until 1779, when he died. In Persia, every thing depends upon the character of the reigning monarch, and the sons of Kerim being either weak or dissolute, or both, intestine contests were renewed, and distressed and degraded the country to the close of this period. In eastern Persia, Ahmed Shah Abdalle maintained his authority till his death, which occurred in 1773. He carried on various wars in India, and gained a great victory at Paniput, in 1761. He was succeeded by his son Timur Shah.

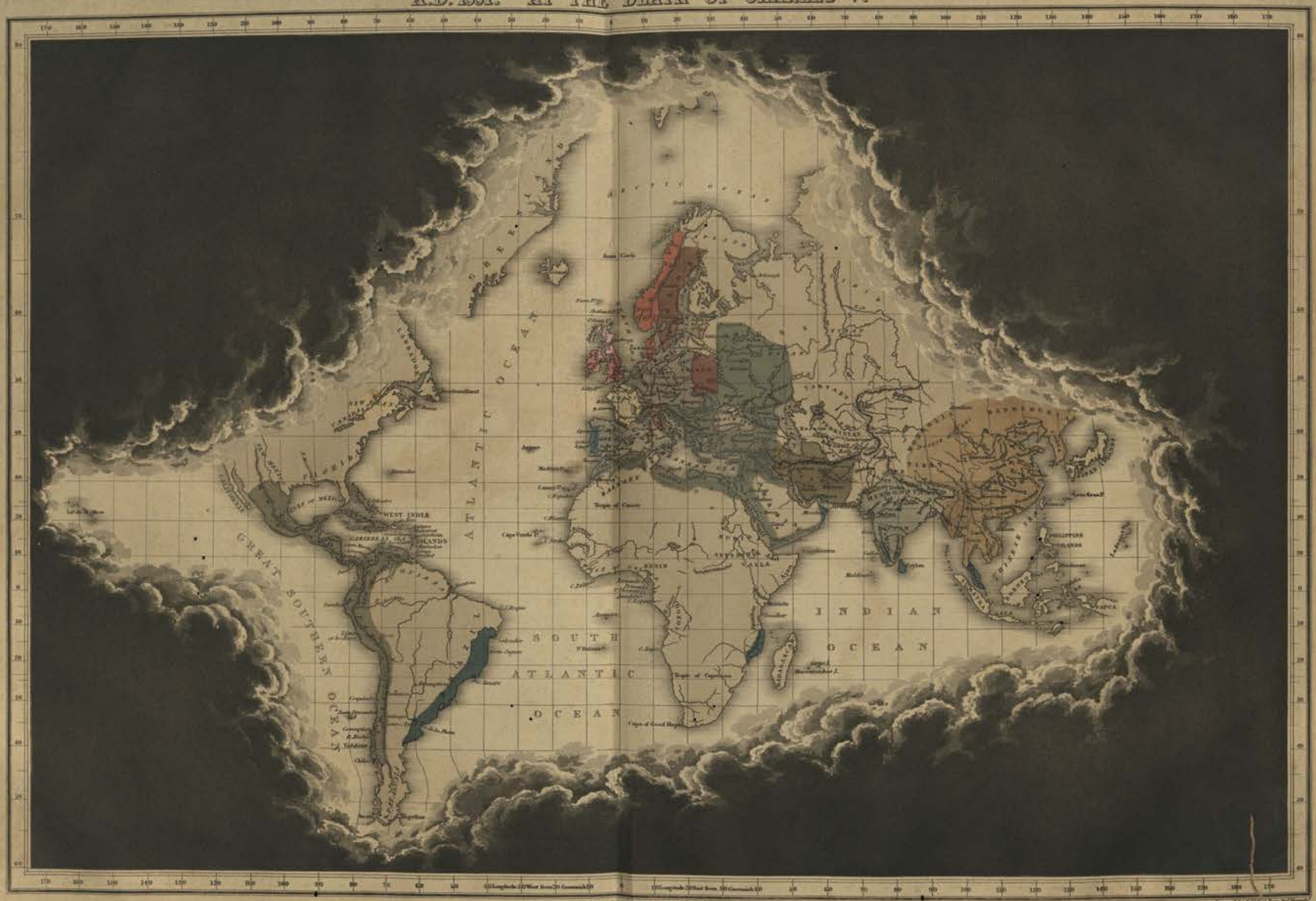
Aurungzebe, who filled the throne of HINDOOSTAN from 1658 to 1707, extended his sway over almost the whole of India on this side of the Ganges, and was succeeded on his death by his second son Shah Aulum I., who reigned until 1712. The reigns of the four sultans who successively ascended the throne after Aulum, were extremely brief; the country was distracted, and the petty princes resumed their independence. Indeed, the empire of the Great Mogul declined rapidly from the death of Aurungzebe, and the invasion of Shah Nadir; and the increasing influence of the Europeans precipitated its total overthrow. Shah Aulum II. was the Great Mogul only in name. Among the princes and states that then or soon after attained independence, were the Nizam or Subahdar of the Decan; the nabob of the Carnatic or Arcot; the Subahdar of Bengal; the nabob of Oude; the Rajpoot princes of Ajimere; the Mahrattas; the Seiks; the Rohillas eastward of Delhi; and the Jats in Agra. The French first took advantage of the weakness of the native princes, and trained the sepoys, or native soldiers, to European discipline; but they were soon opposed and ultimately expelled by the English. On the death of the Nizam, at Mulk, Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, supported Chunda Saheb, as Nabob of the Carnatic, in opposition to the nomination of the new Nizam, Nazir Jung. Being successful, in conjunction with Chunda Saheb, they dethroned Nazir Jung himself, who was assisted by the English; and Dupleix, in 1750, was appointed by the new Subahdar, Mirzapha Jung, governor of the Mogul dominions on the coast of Coromandel, from the river Kistua,' to Cape Comorin. Muhammed Ali, the son of the rejected nabob, however, still held out; and captain Clive, with a handful of men, took Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, and gallantly maintained possession of it. Reinforcements arrived from England; Dupleix was recalled in 1754; and by a provisional treaty, the English and French mutually agreed to withdraw from all interference in the affairs of the native princes, and the French renounced the government of the Coromandel coast. In 1756, Suraja Dowla, Subahdar of Bengal, surprised Calcutta, reduced fort William, and confined the prisoners in the black hole; but Calcutta was retaken in the next year, and Suraja Dowla overthrown by colonel, afterwards lord Clive. War with France was renewed in 1757; the French settlements were conquered, and although they were restored by the peace of 1763, France never recovered her influence. *The English had now established their empire;* they rapidly extended their dominion, and on their reducing the nabob of Oude, the emperor Shah Aulum II. threw himself on their protection. In consideration of a fixed annual tribute, (260,000*l.*) the emperor constituted the English company, collectors and receivers of all revenues in Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. In 1766, they obtained a grant of the northern Circars; and from forming a treaty with the Nizam of the Deccan, became involved in hostilities with Hyder Ali, who had usurped the throne of Mysore. Hyder gained the Nizam over to his interest, and dictated peace before Madras on his own terms, in 1769. Mr. Hastings, governor of Bengal, in 1772, was the first governor-general. During his administration the tribute to the emperor was discontinued, and the Rohillas were almost destroyed. The French settlements were again reduced, and a second war with Hyder Ali broke out in 1780. Hyder died in 1782, and was succeeded by his son Tippoo Saib, who being deserted by the French in 1783, in consequence of the peace of Versailles, concluded hostilities the next year. At this period the British possessed the whole Soubhah of Bengal, the greatest part of Bahar, the district of Midnapore in Orissa, the district of Benares, four of the five northern Circars, Bombay, and Salsette. The title of great mogul was still possessed by Shah Aulum II., but he had little real authority. Of the native princes, Tippoo Saib was the most powerful. His dominions stretched as far as Travancore and Madura on the south, Soonda and Bejapoor to the north, Guntoor and Ongle on the north east, and the sea on the west. The Mahrattas were formed into two distinct states, that of Poonah or the western, which was divided among a number of chiefs, and Berar or the eastern. The Nizam of the Deccan possessed Golconda, the chief part of Dowlatabad, the western part of Berar, and Guntoor one of the five Circars. The nabob of the Carnatic had the coast of Coromandel, from Guntoor to cape Comorin. There were several other independent princes.—Of the history of the eastern peninsula of India, little is known. It continued to be divided into a number of kingdoms, which were in a state of almost perpetual warfare with each other, and had little or no influence with the rest of the world.

In the history of the Eastern Peninsula of India, the rise of the present BIRMESE EMPIRE must be noticed. Birmah was conquered by the Peguans, in 1752, and Alom-praw, a Birman of low extraction, indignant at the humiliation of his country, raised a revolt, and after an arduous struggle, expelled the Peguans from Birmah, and made himself master of Pegu itself. He then reduced the district of Martaban, and the state of Savoy; and was about to annex the kingdom of Siam to his dominions, when he died in 1760. Alom-praw was succeeded by his eldest son, who, dying in 1763, his brother Shembuan seized upon the throne, to the prejudice of the rightful heir, an infant. In 1767, the Chinese invaded Birmah, but of fifty thousand men not one returned to China. Shembuan died in 1776, and was succeeded by his son, Cheuguza, whose horrible excesses caused his dethronement and violent death, in 1782. Momein, the offspring of the eldest son of Alom-praw, then ascended the throne, but he was speedily deposed by his uncle, Muiderajee-praw, who was an active and able prince. A revolution was effected in Cochin China and Tong-kin, by three brothers, who were struggling for the undisputed possession of these countries, at the close of this period.

The Man-tchu Tartars maintained possession of the throne of CHINA, and the history of that country presents no remarkable events. The Christian religion was entirely suppressed in the empire, and the trade with Europe much increased.

In the preceding periods, AMERICA has been noticed only as subject to Europe, but the UNITED STATES, having acquired their independence, demand particular attention. The origin of their opposition to England, the parent state, has already been shewn. The thirteen states which associated together, were New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

A.D. 1551. AT THE DEATH OF CHARLES V.



A.D. 1811. EMPIRE OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

London, Published by Longman & Rees, 39 Paternoster Row, 1811.

TWENTIETH PERIOD.

FROM THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, A. D. 1783, TO THE GREATEST EXTENSION OF THE FRENCH EMPIRE, A. D. 1811.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
The British Empire, embracing The British Isles Gibraltar, Malta, St. Maure Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, &c. Jamaica, Antigua, Barbadoes, Guadaloupe Grenada, Dominica, Martinique St. Vincent, Tobago, Trinidad The Virgin Islands, St. Croix, St. Eustatia St. Martin, Saba, the Saintes, Mariegalante Surinam, Demerara, Essequibo The Cape of Good Hope, Sierra Leone, Goree, &c. The Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras, with their dependencies Ceylon, Banda, Amboyna, and Ternate Settlements in New Holland, Bourbon, and the Isle of France	Crimson.
Denmark and Norway, possessing Iceland	Red.
Sweden, possessing Hither-Pomerania, and Rugen	Brown.
The French Empire, embracing France, Holland, the Netherlands Upper Italy, Sardinia, Savoy, Rome, &c. Part of Germany;———and having Prussia, Naples, Switzerland, and the confederated States of the Rhine in a state of dependence; together with possession of Spain	Yellow.
The Austrian Empire, embracing Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, &c.	Purple.
Prussia	Yellow-Green.
Sicily	Lilac.
Sardinia	Chocolate.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
The Spanish Empire, embracing Spain, Majorca, Minorca, &c. New Spain, New Granada, Peru Chili, La Plata, &c. Florida, Cuba, Porto Rico The Philippines, &c.	Light Blue.
The Portuguese Empire, embracing Portugal, Madeira, and Cape Verd Isles Brazil, Guiana, Settlements in Africa Goa, Macao, &c.	Dark Blue.
The Russian Empire, embracing Russia, Siberia, Kamtschatka Finland, Livonia, Courland, Samogitia The territory to the Dnieper The Crimea, Azof, Georgia	Dark Green.
The Ottoman Empire, embracing Roumelia, Bulgaria, the Morea Moldavia, Wallachia, Servia Bosnia, Albania, part of Dalmatia Asia Minor, Syria, part of Armenia Egypt, Northern Africa Cyprus, Candia, Negropont, &c.	Green.
Persia (Eastern and Western)	Olive Green.
Hindoostan (Native Powers)	Grey.
The Chinese Empire, embracing China, the Corea, Mandshuria Mongolia, Little Bucharia; Tibet Formosa, Leoo-Keoo Isles Tonquin and Cochin-China	Light Brown.
The Birman Empire	Olive Brown.
The United States of America, possessing Florida, &c.	Pink.

ALTHOUGH the present period comprehends but a short space of time, it embraces an extraordinary variety of events; which are almost unprecedented, both in their importance, and in the rapidity with which they occurred. The atrocious outrages perpetrated by the French revolutionists, shook the foundations of the most ancient governments of Europe, and the despotic ambition of republican and imperial France, occasioned a more tremendous war than the civilized world of modern times had ever experienced. The history of FRANCE may, therefore, with propriety, be first considered; especially as that country will be found to have been prominently engaged in all the changes and military transactions which took place. In order to preserve perspicuity, we shall separate the domestic from the foreign occurrences, and commence with the former.—The nobility and clergy, who were exempt from taxation, and exercised in the provinces almost despotic power, were opposed to the slightest interference with their privileges; without possessing the strength to defend them against the attacks of an irritated people. The king too, gifted with but moderate abilities, and educated as an absolute monarch, was easily inclined to the same course, and M. Necker retired in consequence of the

opposition his plans for reform met with at court. He was succeeded by M. de Calonne, who finding the parliaments inflexible, and the popular discontent daily increasing, resolved on a meeting of the notables, or men of note. This body consisted of persons selected by the king from the higher orders, and had been substituted since 1614 for the states-general. The notables met in February 1787, and M. de Calonne proposed a stamp duty, a land-tax, and the convocation of provincial assemblies; but his proposals were rejected, and he was dismissed, M. de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, then became minister, and the assembly of notables was dissolved in May. The parliament of Paris refused to register the royal edicts, and recommended a meeting of the states-general. It now required the presence of the king to obtain the slightest shew of obedience from the parliament, and the duke of Orleans having violently espoused its cause, was banished from the capital. Upon this, discontent was more strongly expressed; which was still further increased by the abolition of parliaments in 1788. M. Necker, however, was reinstated the same year, and the parliaments were restored. A meeting of the states-general took place in May 1789, when the deputies of the commons, or third estate, equalled in number those of the nobles and clergy conjoined. After ineffectual efforts on the part of the friends of the king to prevent it, the three estates met in one body, which soon afterwards assumed the title of the national assembly. The progress of anarchy was now rapid, and in July the Bastille was destroyed by the mob of Paris. The royal authority was at an end, and the insurrection was no longer confined to the capital, but the provinces became a scene of discord. The king attempted to escape, but was detected, and made a prisoner. The national assembly continued to hold its meetings; and a furious multitude, instigated by the Orleans faction and the jacobins, hurried to Versailles, destroyed the body-guard, and brought the royal family with all imaginable indignity to Paris. The public misery was heightened by too great an issue of paper-money, under the name of assignats. On September 14, 1791, Louis XVI. accepted a new constitution, which was presented to him by the national assembly. It gave him little more than the title of king; dissolved the national assembly; and invested the legislative assembly with the chief authority. The most frightful excesses were now perpetrated by the populace; the audacity of the demagogues increased with their success; and on the 10th of August 1792, the king was assailed; his Swiss guards were inhumanly massacred; and he was imprisoned in the temple. A national convention was formed; the constitution was overthrown; on the 2d, 3d, and 4th of September, torrents of blood were again shed;—and on the 21st, France was declared a REPUBLIC. A decree was issued for the encouragement of rebellion in all other countries, and thus the law of nations was no more respected than the royal authority. The national convention was divided into two parties; the girondists, who wished merely to hold the power they possessed; and the jacobins or mountain faction, who were resolved to push the democratic spirit of the time to its utmost excess. The latter party was successful, and the fate of the dethroned monarch was soon decided. He underwent a mock trial, and, on January 17, 1793, was sentenced to death, his own relation, the infamous duke of Orleans, voting for the murder. On the 21st, the sentence was carried into execution; and, although during his reign Louis XVI. had often evinced a want of proper resolution, he ascended the scaffold with a fortitude, dignity, and resignation, worthy of a christian monarch. This murder increased, if possible, the ferocity of the mountain party; and its leaders, Robespierre and Marat especially, set no bounds to their demoniacal atrocities. Many of the girondists soon regretted the death of the king; but the savage fury of the mountain faction gave it the preponderance in the capital; and on May 31, 1793, on the girondists endeavouring to move the convention, the tocsin was sounded, the *générale* beat, and all was terror and commotion. Nothing decisive, however, occurred; but on June 2, an armed force surrounded the national hall, and compelled the denunciation of upwards of ninety of the girondists. The mountain faction thus triumphed, but their victory was calamitous to France, to liberty, and to humanity. A violent convulsion ensued. In the departments of La Vendée and the Loire, the royalists had previously assembled in great force, and carried on a desperate war. The north of France adhered to the convention as it stood, while the south burst into rebellion. Lyons, Marseilles, and Toulon, the Gironde, and Calvados, declared the mountain party to be outlawed. A young woman, Charlotte Cordé, fired with political enthusiasm, obtained an interview with Marat, stabbed him, and then disdaining to escape, died on the scaffold, shouting "*Vive la Republique!*" The mountain party was everywhere successful; it completed the form of the constitution, but disregarded it in the convention, which declared itself permanent; and reduced the provinces. The department of Calvados yielded in July; Lyons, after having been besieged for two months, surrendered in October, when a most frightful scene of barbarity and murder took place; the Marseillois submitted; Toulon made an unsuccessful compact for assistance with lord Hood, the English admiral; and La Vendée, after an inconceivably bloody war, in which neither party spared the other, was restored to comparative tranquillity by the end of October. The convention, under the jacobin club and the mountain party, by despatching commissioners to all parts of the republic, established a dreadful despotism; and the scaffolds throughout France ran with blood. The unfortunate queen, after undergoing the most barbarous treatment, was publicly murdered, after a mock trial, October 16th. On the 30th of the same month, twenty-one of the girondists suffered a similar fate; and amongst a multitude of others, the infamous and abhorred duke of Orleans, or citizen Equality, as he styled himself, expiated his crimes with his life, amidst the execration of all parties. To be accused was now to be condemned. The next step was the abolition of the christian religion, and the French deities were declared to be Reason, Equality, &c. The jacobins being now without rivals, quarrelled among themselves. They divided into two factions; the old club and the cordeliers. At the head of the former was Robespierre, who had gradually acquired the confidence of the people, and the direction of the government. From its formation, the convention had been divided into committees, the whole of which were ruled by one for public safety, in which Robespierre presided. He was jealous, implacable, and sanguinary, both through cowardice and natural disposition. By the execution of multitudes of every rank and sex, he extended the reign of terror throughout France. On September 5, he had nine of his most brutal associates led to the scaffold, and on May 10, 1794, Elizabeth, the sister of the late king, was sacrificed. The presiding demon, by his bloody vigilance, destroyed every open rival, but even the jacobins themselves began to murmur at seeing the awful privilege of shedding human blood monopolised by an individual. Terror, however, imposed silence, until July 25, 1794, when the convention begun to exhibit signs of resistance, in consequence of having understood that some more of its members were to be doomed to the scaffold. On the 26th, the sitting was tempestuous; and on the 27th, Robespierre was silenced by shouts of execration, and his arrest, together with that of his chief instruments, was decreed. The municipal officers agreed to protect the proscribed in the hall of the commune; but the tocsin was sounded; that place speedily taken; and Robespierre and his associates, with sixty of the municipal officers, were executed. The reign of terror now ended, and was succeeded by a system of comparative moderation. The jacobin clubs were abolished, and after an inquiry, some deputies were condemned on the charge of having participated in Robespierre's atrocious measures. Their defence was, that

they were not more culpable than the rest of the convention; and their partizans, taking advantage of a scarcity of bread, excited a fresh insurrection on April 1, 1795. It was, however, suppressed, but the convention not taking any measures to prevent the recurrence of such an event, disturbances were renewed on May 20, and not subdued until the 23rd. On June 9, Louis XVII. son of the late king, died in the prison of the temple, and in consequence of some re-action in the public mind, his sister obtained her liberty. At the close of August the convention had prepared a new (the third) constitution. It divided the legislature into two assemblies, the council of ancients, and the council of five-hundred; and vested the executive power in a directory of five persons. This constitution was ordered to be submitted to the primary assemblies, the convention having decreed that two-thirds of the new legislators should be chosen from among its members. The sections of Paris opposed the decree, and the convention had recourse to the jacobins for support. Open violence was the consequence; and after an encounter between the troops (under Barras and Bonaparte) and the sections, the convention prevailed, and the mountain party thus again acquired the ascendancy. On October 27, the convention terminated its sittings, and the new constitution was put into operation. This new republican government, however, promised but little tranquillity to France. The mountain party greatly preponderated, and so turbulent was the character of its members, that it soon became weary of the directory it had established. The most violent of the jacobins attempted an insurrection, and although they were detected and foiled, party animosity increased daily. At length the contending factions distinguished themselves by their dress, and the directory prepared to support itself by force of arms. On August 4, 1796, it surrounded the Thuilleries with troops, and seized and banished upwards of fifty of the members of the councils, besides twelve other persons. The majority of the nation, however, was dissatisfied; the supplies voted came in but sparingly; and the directory found it necessary to have the elections of several departments, and of a great many particular persons, annulled. It also established an extensive patronage, which answered for finances, by dividing among its adherents the plunder of neighbouring states; and it amused the public mind by announcing its determination to invade England, while its real intention was to seize upon Egypt, and thence to attack British India. But still the people were discontented. The constitution had been grossly violated, the armies had met with a reverse of fortune, and these circumstances, together with the failure of the Egyptian expedition, had rendered the directory so unpopular, that on the introduction of the new third into the councils for 1799, it was unable to maintain its ground. Compromises were made; changes in its members took place; but all without any beneficial effect. The republic was disorganized and ready for a change; when Bonaparte suddenly appeared in France, at the very moment the public attention had been recalled to his victories in Italy, by his destroying a Turkish army in Egypt. His desertion of his army, and sudden appearance, excited great astonishment, but it soon became evident that he acted in concert with others. On November 9, the committee of the council of ancients reported that the country was in danger, and the sitting of the legislature was held next day at St. Cloud, when the council of five-hundred was informed that four of the directors had resigned, and that the fifth, Barras, was in custody by order of Bonaparte, who had been named by the council of ancients, commander of their guard. The council of five-hundred was allowed but little time for deliberation before Bonaparte, accompanied by about twenty officers and grenadiers, entered the hall, and advanced to the chair, where his brother Lucien sat as president. Great confusion ensued, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to stab Bonaparte. Lucien quitted the chair, laid aside his badge of office, and was soon carried off by a party of armed men who rushed into the hall. A tumultuary debate arose, and it was proposed to declare Bonaparte an outlaw; when the military suddenly dispersed the members. In the meantime, the ancients had abolished the directory, and established three consuls, Bonaparte, Sieyes, (the prime mover of the change) and Roger Ducos, in its stead. Some of the members of the five-hundred remaining at St. Cloud, they assembled the same evening, confirmed the decrees of the ancients, the new government entered upon its functions the next day, and all France submitted as if nothing extraordinary had occurred. In December, a new constitution, proceeding from the consuls, was accepted. It gave the whole executive authority, and the exclusive privilege of proposing new laws, to one man, under the title of chief consul; who held his place for ten years, and might be re-elected. The legislative power was entrusted to two bodies; a tribunate, consisting of one hundred members, and a senate of three hundred. Bonaparte was nominated chief consul, and to the conclusion of this period he was the despot of France. To render himself popular he filled the new offices of senators and counsellors with men of acknowledged merit, and addressed a letter to the king of England, expressing a strong desire to see peace re-established. Negociations were opened in consequence, but they speedily terminated, and with them the hopes of tranquillity. In 1801, Bonaparte concluded a convention with the pope, known as the concordat, for the re-establishment of the catholic religion in France, which was effected in April in the following year. About the same time the legion of honour was formed, and in the succeeding August, Bonaparte was declared chief consul for life, with power to name his successor. France now knew a moment of tranquillity. Her internal war had ceased, and by a treaty concluded at Amiens, on March 27, 1802, she was at peace with the world. The insatiable ambition, however, of her ruler, caused a renewal of hostilities the next year, and produced the most destructive war that ever harassed civilized Europe. In the beginning of 1804, the legislature adopted a new civil code, denominated the code Napoleon; but while the chief consul was promulgating laws for the restriction of others, his own acts evinced a disregard for all laws and for humanity. In February he had Moreau, Pichegru and others, imprisoned as conspirators; and in March, he murdered the duke d'Enghein, the only remaining branch of the Condé family. Still the legislature were his slaves, and in May he was declared *Emperor of the French*. To the astonishment of Europe, pope Pius VII. attended at Paris to anoint him on his coronation. The new emperor soon thought that a matrimonial alliance with one of the reigning potentates of Europe was essential to the stability of his dynasty; and the events of the war having at the close of 1809, given him great power over the emperor of Austria, he divorced Josephine, who had been crowned with him, and in the following February, married the arch-duchess Maria Louisa. In March, 1811, the empress was delivered of a son, and Bonaparte had now arrived at the summit of his prosperity.

We next turn to the foreign occurrences. The French Revolution excited both the fears and hopes of Austria and Prussia, and in August 1791, those powers entered into a treaty at Pilnitz, for the restoration of Louis XVI., and the dismemberment of France. While warlike preparations were making, the emperor died suddenly in March 1792, and Gustavus III. of Sweden, who was to have commanded the allied armies, was assassinated. A continuation of peace was hoped for in consequence, but in vain. Francis II. of Austria demanded satisfaction for the German princes, proprietors of Alsace, and also the establishment of such a government in France, as would be a guarantee for the security of other powers. War was the consequence, and the French commenced hostilities in the Austrian Netherlands. They were defeated, and those who fled

from the enemy murdered their general. Prussia and Russia united with Holland; and in July, the duke of Brunswick issued a violent and imprudent manifesto. He soon entered France with 90,000 Prussians, Austrians, Hessians, and French emigrants; but in September a most destructive sickness broke out in the Prussian army, and the allies were compelled to retreat. In the same month the republic declared war against Sardinia, and its arms were everywhere successful. Dumouriez conquered the Netherlands; Montesquieu, Savoy; and Custines was victorious in Germany. The republic incorporated with itself the conquered territories, and opened the navigation of the Scheldt in defiance of treaties guaranteed by Great Britain. That country had viewed with alarm the proceedings of the revolutionists; and making this infraction of its treaties, and the decree of the republic fraternising rebellion in all nations, the grounds of a quarrel; it recalled its minister and dismissed the French ambassador. In February 1793, war was declared by France against Great Britain and Holland, and in May, the *first coalition* was formed against France, by Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, the German empire, Holland, Spain, Portugal, the two Sicilies, the ecclesiastical states, and Sardinia. The campaign of 1793, commenced with a series of reverses to the French. Dumouriez was obliged to abandon his conquests, and after doing so he became a partizan of the royal cause, and joined the imperialists. The convention, however, made great exertions, decreed a levy *en masse*, and resumed hostilities at three different points: the Netherlands, the banks of the Rhine, and the south of France. Condé and Valenciennes surrendered to the allies; but the duke of York, marching against Dunkirk, was completely defeated; and the prince of Coburg sustained a similar disaster near Maubeuge. On the Rhine, the Austro-Prussian army, under Wurmser, after having been victorious in several actions, was defeated and compelled to repass the river. The republicans retook Weissemberg, and prince Hohenloe was obliged to retire to Metz. In the mean time Corsica openly resisted the authority of France. France began the following campaign with upwards of 700,000 men, divided into several armies; and the force of the allies amounted to about 400,000 men. Again the allies were successful at the outset, and afterwards met with defeat. Pichegru took possession of the Netherlands; on the Rhine the French threatened Manheim and Metz; the army of Italy took possession of Oneglia; and the republican troops defeated the Spaniards at St. Jean de Luz, Figueras, and Irun. In this campaign there were twenty-three regular sieges; the French gained six pitched battles, and took 124 towns. In the colonies, however, France knew nothing but discomfiture. The English captured all the French West India islands, except a part of Guadaloupe, and took possession of Corsica; and on June 1, a British fleet, under lord Howe, gained a splendid victory over the French navy. In January 1795, the republicans, under Pichegru, completed the conquest of Holland. The stadholder was obliged to fly to England; the British troops were withdrawn; and a provisional government under the protection of France was established. In the following month a treaty of peace was concluded between France and Tuscany. Prussia withdrew from the coalition in April, and signed a treaty of peace with France; and in the same month the republic was acknowledged by Sweden. The Dutch states, under the direction of Pichegru, formed themselves into the Batavian republic, and became the allies of France in May; and the successes of the French arms having endangered the capital of Spain, that country sought and obtained a peace in July. The Swiss cantons next acknowledged the French republic; and in August, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel followed the example of Prussia. In September, Belgium was formally united to France. No important military operations took place. As in the preceding year, the British fleets were triumphant over those of France. In March, admiral Hotham was victorious; and in June, lord Bridport defeated a French fleet off l'Orient. The campaign of 1796 was commenced with great vigour on both sides. The military force of the republic was divided into three armies; that of the Sambre and the Meuse commanded by Jourdan; that of the Rhine and the Moselle, by Moreau; and that of Italy by Bonaparte. The latter opened the campaign in April with about 60,000 men, and was opposed by an Austrian army of about the same number, under Beaulieu—a Sardinian army amounting to 60,000 regular troops, besides the militia,—and 2,500 Neapolitan cavalry. Bonaparte was nevertheless victorious wherever he turned; at Montenotte, Piedmont, Lodi, Castiglione, Roveredo, and Arcola, he triumphed; and before the end of the year the Austrians were compelled to evacuate Italy almost entirely; while Turin, Rome, Naples, Parma, and most of the Italian states, purchased peace from the directory. In Germany, the French arms were less fortunate. After reducing Wurtemburg and Swabia, Jourdan was compelled, by the archduke Charles, to retreat to the frontiers of France in great disorder; and it was the generalship of Moreau alone that saved the army of the Rhine from destruction. When on the point of taking possession of the sources of the Adige, he was suddenly deprived of the support of the army of the Sambre, and forced to retrograde. His retreat occupied twenty-seven days, and is cited as one of the most glorious operations of the French arms. In August, Spain, as the ally of France, declared war against Great Britain. France and her allies still suffered on the ocean, and in their colonies. The British captured the Cape of Good Hope, and also a Dutch fleet in Saldanha bay. Corsica, however, was relinquished by Great Britain. While hostilities were raging with the utmost fury, a British minister arrived in Paris to negotiate for the re-establishment of peace; but after much discussion, he was dismissed by the directory in December, and the war continued. In the beginning of 1797, the pope, at the instance of Austria, renewed hostilities against France; but the battle of Rivoli completed the expulsion of the Austrians, and the pope was obliged to purchase peace at the price of part of his territories, and the principal ornaments of Rome. Bonaparte then marched on Venice; and the archduke Charles, being unable to check his progress, hastened to collect his forces under the walls of Vienna in order to fight a decisive battle. At this critical period negotiations were entered into, and a preliminary treaty of peace was signed in April, between Austria and France. In June, Genoa was revolutionized by the French, and the Ligurian republic formed; and in July the Cisalpine republic, comprising Austrian Lombardy, the territory ceded by the pope, and other provinces, was established. The republic of Venice next suffered. It had rebelled against the authority of France; for which its government was abolished, and by a definitive treaty of peace between France and Austria, its territories were divided between those powers, and the Cisalpine republic. In December, a congress was opened at Radstadt, for settling the peace of the empire with France. During this year, a British fleet under Sir J. Jervis, obtained a splendid victory over one of Spain, off St. Vincent; and the Dutch fleet was totally defeated by admiral Duncan, who took admiral de Winter prisoner. In the beginning of 1798, on the pope attempting to regain his authority, France declared Rome a republic. At the same time the directory professed it to be its intention to invade England, and commenced the formation of an army; but its real intentions were made known in May, by the sailing of a fleet from Toulon, with 40,000 troops on board for Egypt. Bonaparte was the commander of the expedition; and on his way he took possession of Malta, by agreement. He arrived in Egypt in July; defeated the Mamlukes in several engagements; and in a few months became master of that country. The fleet, however, that carried him

thither was destroyed by admiral Nelson, in one of the ablest sea-fights ever known. In September, Turkey declared war against France, and in December formed an alliance with Russia. In the same month France formally renewed hostilities against the kings of Sardinia and Naples, and deprived the former of Piedmont. In the meantime, after much bloodshed, Switzerland was revolutionized and made subservient to France, as the Helvetic republic. In January 1799, Naples was entered by the French, who established in it a republican government; that being the last success achieved by the directory. The congress of Radstadt broke up in April, and a second coalition against France was formed by Great Britain, Austria, part of the German empire, Sicily, Portugal, Russia, and Turkey. The French armies were everywhere defeated. In July the Ligurian republic alone remained to France in Italy; but at the moment when the Russian and Austrian armies threatened France with invasion, the new coalition broke up. The armies of Russia had been compromised by Austria, and they were withdrawn in October. England made an attempt to detach the United Provinces from the interest of France, but she succeeded only in annihilating their maritime power. In the meantime, Bonaparte marched into Syria, and after being completely foiled at Acre, by sir S. Smith, he deserted his army, leaving it in a weak and shattered condition. Malta and Curacoa were taken by Great Britain. The campaign of 1800 was far more encouraging to the French arms. Moreau was victorious, and threatened the Austrian capital; which produced an armistice: while Bonaparte, marching over Great St. Bernard into Italy, in a great measure restored the French power in that country. In 1801 peace was concluded between France, Austria, and the empire. All the left bank of the Rhine, Falkenstein, and the Frickthal, were ceded to France. The treaty was acceded to by the Helvetian, Batavian, Cisalpine, and Ligurian republics. The four northern powers, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Prussia, being jealous of the maritime greatness of Great Britain, entered into an armed neutrality with a view to its restriction. The conduct of Great Britain was prompt and decided. She despatched a fleet to the Sound, and after a few hours contest, lord Nelson captured the Danish fleet, and destroyed the league. The French, after being defeated near Alexandria by sir R. Abercrombie, were expelled from Egypt by his successor, general Hutchinson. These transactions opened the way to pacificatory negotiations between Great Britain and France, which produced a preliminary treaty of peace, in October 1801; and a definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Amiens, in March 1802. The ambition of France, however, occasioned an early renewal of hostilities. Bonaparte became president of the Italian, previously the Cisalpine republic; Elba and Piedmont were incorporated with France; Switzerland was again revolutionized in a frightful manner, and in May 1803, war was renewed between Great Britain and France. The ostensible cause of hostilities was the disinclination of Great Britain to restore the island of Malta to the knights, in fulfilment of the peace of Amiens, but the real cause was the insatiable ambition of France. The French at once took possession of Hanover, and revived the project of a descent upon England; while Tobago, and the Dutch settlements of Surinam, Demerara, and Essequibo, fell into the hands of the English. In December, a subsidiary treaty was formed between Great Britain and Sweden, and in the same month Spain declared war against Great Britain. In March 1805, Bonaparte became king of Italy; and in June, the Ligurian republic was incorporated with France. Austria was thus irritated, and in August a third coalition was formed, for the purpose of restraining France within her former limits. The contracting parties were Great Britain, Austria, Russia, Sweden, the two Sicilies, and Sardinia. The forces of the coalition were to amount to 500,000 men, and Bonaparte had a similar number of disposable troops. Hostilities were commenced at Wurtingen, where the Austrians were totally defeated; and that affair was followed by an extraordinary series of triumphs to the French arms. On November 13, the French entered Vienna, and on December 2, the Austro-Russian army, commanded by the emperors of Austria and Russia, was totally defeated by Bonaparte at Austerlitz. An armistice was the consequence, and on the 25th, peace was signed at Presburg, between France and Austria. The sacrifices made by the latter power were great, and the electors of Bavaria and Wurtemburg became kings at her expence. On the ocean, England was still triumphant, and her great admiral, Nelson, finished his glorious career by defeating the combined fleets of France and Spain, off Trafalgar. Out of thirty-three sail of the line he took or destroyed nineteen, and died in the moment of victory. Four of the French ships which escaped were afterwards taken by sir R. Strachan. In the beginning of 1806, Prussia became hostile to England, and entering into a confederation with France, occupied Hanover. In March, Bonaparte declared his brother Joseph, king of Naples; and in June, he proclaimed his brother Louis king of Holland, and bestowed several other titles on different members of his family. Bonaparte next effected the dissolution of the German empire, and established in its room the confederation of the Rhine. Ferdinand II. of Austria, was compelled to renounce the title of emperor of Germany, and Bonaparte became protector of the new confederation. Prussia now felt the effects of her mistaken policy. In October, France commenced hostilities against her, and gained a succession of victories. Bonaparte soon entered Berlin; the French were everywhere victorious; and in July 1807, the king of Prussia was compelled to conclude a peace at Tilsit, at the loss of nearly half his dominions. The elector of Saxony took the title of king, with an increase of territory, and Westphalia was erected into a kingdom for Jerome Bonaparte. Although thus triumphant in her military operations in Europe, France felt annoyed by the increasing wealth and continued opposition of Great Britain; and in order to undermine the resources of her most dangerous adversary, she had recourse to the "Continental System," which had for its object the entire exclusion of British manufactures from the Continent. It was in pursuance of this scheme, that Bonaparte issued the Berlin decree, dated November 21, 1807, prohibiting all commerce, intercourse, and correspondence, with British subjects, and declaring the British Isles (whose fleets had undisputed possession of the ocean) to be in a state of "*Blockade!*" Denmark had rapidly increased her fleet; and Great Britain, apprehending the probability of its falling into the hands of the French, despatched a force to demand its detention in a British port. This requirement was refused, and the bombardment of Copenhagen ensued, which led to the surrender of the fleet as at first demanded. A rupture between Great Britain and Russia was the consequence. After compelling the prince regent of Portugal to break his treaties with England, Bonaparte proclaimed that the house of Braganza had ceased to reign, and marched an army upon Lisbon. The Portuguese were unable to resist, and the prince regent, together with the court, embarked for the Brazils, under the protection of the British flag. The Berlin decree against British manufactures was followed up by a similar but more rigorous edict, which was issued by Bonaparte from Milan, and dated December 17, 1807. Spain had been a party to the aggression of France against Portugal, and, in 1808, she felt the full effects of her folly. After creating a mock insurrection, and sowing dissentions between Charles VI. and the heir apparent, Bonaparte entrapped the whole royal family of Spain, procured from them a renunciation of their rights, and proclaimed his brother Joseph, king of Spain; giving the throne of Naples to his brother-in-law, Murat. But the perfidious conduct of Bonaparte, excited the implacable hatred of the Spaniards, and they implored the

assistance of Great Britain, which was readily extended to them. Saragossa gloriously defended itself, and after a siege of sixty-three days, the French were compelled to make a disgraceful retreat. The patriotism of Spain excited that of Portugal, and both countries resisted the yoke of France. The obtrusive king Joseph was soon obliged to quit Madrid, where he had been crowned, and the Spanish patriots collected in considerable force. A British army, under sir Arthur Wellesley, landed in Portugal on August 6, 1808; on the 17th sir Arthur forced the passes of Roliea, and on the 21st he defeated the French under Junot, at Vimiera. But immediately afterwards, sir Hugh Dalrymple took the command, and concluded a convention at Cintra, by which the French troops were conveyed to France on terms afterwards considered too favourable. During the close of this year and the beginning of 1809, Bonaparte entered Spain at the head of a large force; routed the Spanish patriot armies; regained Madrid; compelled an English army, which had advanced from Portugal, under sir John Moore, to retreat, and hastily embark from Corunna; and carried Saragossa, after a most memorable defence, in which fifty-four thousand of the besieged are said to have perished from famine, sickness, and the sword. In the mean time the emperor of Austria made an effort to retrieve his losses, and renewed hostilities against France, on which Bonaparte immediately left Spain for Germany. The French in Galicia under Soult being harassed by the marquis of Romana again marched into Portugal, and carried Oporto by assault in March 1809. Next month sir Arthur Wellesley became commander in chief of the British and Portuguese troops, and on May 12, executed the brilliant passage of the Douro, defeating Soult and recovering Oporto. He then marched against a French army under Victor, but it retreated without a battle, and Portugal was thus a second time freed from the French. Sir Arthur Wellesley, pursuing his success, formed a junction with Cuesta, the Spanish general, at Oropesa, and threatened Madrid. On July 27 and 28, the French under Joseph Bonaparte attacked the allied forces at Talavera, who completely repulsed them at all points, and threw them into great confusion. Soult hastened to the relief of the discomfited army with 35,000 men. During the course of these transactions in Spain, Bonaparte overcame the emperor of Austria in several battles, and compelled him to sue for peace. He also deprived the pope of his dominions, and annexed them to the French empire. The British however still made great exertions. Besides their expeditions into Spain and Portugal, and reducing almost the whole of the French and Dutch colonies, they obtained some temporary success in Holland, where they made a diversion in favour of the emperor of Austria. In 1810 the French, having concluded peace with Austria, assembled a large army at Salamanca, under Massena, for the purpose of reconquering Portugal. The allied forces retreated, and after giving the French a severe check at Busaco, general Wellesley, now lord Wellington, with the marquis of Romana, retired within the lines of Torres Vedras in October, and so finished the campaign of 1810. During this year France was considerably enlarged: Holland, the Hanse towns, the North-western districts of Germany, within a line from Wesel on the Rhine to Lauenburg on the Elbe; Oldenburg and the Vallais were united to it. The Berlin and Milan decrees, however, had proved ineffectual; the produce of British industry was to be found every-where; and as a further effort for its destruction, Bonaparte issued a decree, dated Fontainbleau, October 15, 1810, for the burning of all British manufactures throughout France and her dependent or subservient states. It did not prove more efficient than its precursors. The French empire was now at the summit of its power, and its ruler possessed the titles of emperor of France, king of Italy, protector of the Rhenish Confederation, and mediator of Switzerland. With the exception of Spain and Portugal, all the states of the continent of Europe were either its intimate allies or submissive to its will; and, as will be seen by a reference to the chart, immense possessions were actually incorporated with France.

The emperor of GERMANY, after vainly endeavouring to seize upon Bavaria, and then to exchange the Austrian Netherlands for that country, commenced, together with Russia, a war of aggression against the Turks in 1788. The Austrians retreated disgracefully, and though afterwards successful, their operations were rendered nugatory by an insurrection in Hungary and the Netherlands, which was caused by some innovations attempted by the emperor. The Netherlands were on the point of forming themselves into a republic, when Joseph II died in 1790, and was succeeded by his brother, Leopold II, who by conciliation restored internal peace, and concluded a treaty with Turkey. Leopold II then entered into the convention of Pilnitz, as already stated, and died suddenly in February 1792. His son, Francis II, succeeded to the hereditary dominions, and was soon elected to the imperial crown. He exerted himself for the suppression of the French revolution; but instead of accomplishing his object his own territories were overrun and impoverished. In 1795, by the third and final partition of Poland, he acquired Cracow. The successes of the French arms produced a division in the German empire, and the house of Austria became incapable of maintaining the supremacy which it had enjoyed, so much to its own aggrandizement, since 1437. In 1804 Francis II declared *Austria to be an hereditary empire;* and in 1806 the *German empire, was formally dissolved, and succeeded by the "confederation of the Rhine,"* of which Bonaparte was declared protector. This new dictator removed its ancient princes, created new titles, and made divisions of territory as he thought fit. Bavaria, Wurtemburg, Saxony, and Westphalia were made kingdoms, at the expence of Austria, Prussia, Hesse, Brunswick, and Hanover; and Baden, Berg, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Frankfort were erected into grand duchies. William Frederick of Brunswick made a glorious struggle for independence, but he was compelled to fly to England with his band of followers. The mountaineers of the Tyrol also made heroic efforts in favor of Austria, but without avail. The other transactions have been sufficiently noticed.

HOLLAND concluded an honorable peace with Great Britain in 1784, and satisfied the claims of Austria by the payment of a sum of money. Its provinces, however, became a prey to internal party violence. William V. was compelled to quit the Hague, and was only reinstated in his authority by the active interference of the king of Prussia, whose sister he had married. In 1788 Holland formed an alliance with Great Britain and Prussia, and as the ally of the former power took part in the war of 1793 against France. Of her fortunes in that war sufficient has already been said. By the peace of Amiens William V. renounced the stadtholdership for an indemnity, and in 1806 Louis Bonaparte was declared king of Holland. In 1810 Louis abdicated in favor of his son, but his brother Napoleon disapproved of this step, and incorporated Holland with France, after her forced connection with that country had occasioned the loss of her fleets, her commerce, and her colonies.

At the commencement of this period Gustavus III ruled with energy in SWEDEN; but in 1786 he was compelled to submit to a limitation of his authority. He declared war against Russia in favor of the Turks, and with a view to the increase of his own territories, in 1788; but his officers denied his power to make offensive war, and caused the failure of an expedition against St. Petersburg. The national diet, however, conferred the disputed authority on the king, and the war was prosecuted with various success until 1790, when peace was concluded at Werelä. In 1791 Gustavus III joined the league against France;—but was assassinated at a masquerade the next year, when about to take the command of the

combined armies. He was succeeded by his son, Gustavus IV, who being under age, his uncle, the duke of Sudermania, was appointed regent. An aristocratical conspiracy was formed against him in 1794, but it was frustrated, and in 1796 the young king assumed the government. In 1799 he formed an alliance with Russia, and in the next year apparently concurred in the armed neutrality of the north. In the conduct of Gustavus there was no system; and neither his character nor his abilities fitted him for the exercise of power. He took part in the third coalition against France, and in 1807 the French reduced Swedish Pomerania and Stralsund. In the following year, by the treaty of Tilsit, Sweden was to be compelled to exclude all British ships from her ports, and on Gustavus refusing to do so, Russia and Denmark declared war against him. Assistance was readily granted to Sweden by Great Britain, but such was the ill conduct of Gustavus that the British troops were unable to effect the slightest service. They were not even permitted to land; while Russia invaded Swedish Finland; and the conduct of the king savouring strongly of insanity, he was deposed, with the general consent, on March 13, 1809. After a short interregnum, his uncle, the duke of Sudermania, was proclaimed king, as Charles XIII, on July 6, and a new constitution was adopted, which imposed some wholesome restrictions upon the crown. In September peace was concluded with Russia, by which Finland and Bothnia to the Tornea were ceded to that power, and in December, peace was made with Denmark, on equal terms. In January 1810, Sweden became at peace with France by acceding to the continental system against England, and received in return Swedish Pomerania and Rugen. French influence now predominated. On the sudden and suspicious death of prince Christian of Augustenburg, who had been nominated crown prince, Bernadotte, a French marshal, was declared successor to the throne; and in November Sweden became at war with England.

The crown-prince Frederick became regent of DENMARK in 1784 in consequence of the derangement of his father Christian VII. He governed with ability, and wisely refrained from participating in the war of 1793. The part Denmark took in the armed neutrality of the north has already been noticed; she lost her fleets and suffered greatly in her commerce. Christian VII. died in 1808, and was succeeded by the regent, Frederick VI. who reigned beyond the conclusion of this period.

POLAND was reduced to a most degrading state of dependence by Russia; and that power together with Prussia effected a second dismemberment of its territories in 1793. The Polish patriots, however, under Thaddeus Kosciuszko and Madalinsky, made some noble efforts to regain their independence, but without avail. In 1795 a third and final partition of Poland took place between Russia, Prussia, and Austria; Stanislaus resigned his crown to the empress from whom he had received it, and Poland ceased to be a kingdom.

In 1784 RUSSIA formally acquired the remainder of the Crimea, besides Kuban and Taman. Catherine made a grand tour of the southern provinces in 1787, accompanied by Joseph II. and inspired activity by her presence. At the close of the year she renewed hostilities against the Turks. Russia was joined by Austria, and Turkey by Sweden; and after various successes the peace of Werelä was concluded in 1790, and that of Jassy, by which the Dneister was fixed as the southern Russian boundary, in 1792. In 1793 Russia obtained 4,000 German square miles by the second partition of Poland, and in 1795 she shared in the division of the remnant of that kingdom. Courland was annexed to Russia the same year. Catherine II. died in 1796, universally esteemed as a great princess. Paul I. succeeded to the throne. His irregularities and violence were excessive. In 1797 he took a zealous part in the war against France; in 1798 he participated, as has been already seen, in the second coalition; and in 1800 he formed the armed neutrality of the north. Always violent, his conduct finally became outrageous;—it was that of a madman, and he was strangled on March 23, 1801. He was succeeded by his son Alexander I. who commenced his reign by judicious and patriotic ordinances. In the same year Georgia was incorporated with Russia. Indignant at the murder of the duke d'Enghien, and other acts of Bonaparte, Alexander commenced active hostilities against France, which were terminated by the peace of Tilsit, in 1807. In the same year Russia revived the armed neutrality, and in the next, over-ran Swedish Finland. In 1809, Alexander renewed war against Turkey, and attempted the invasion of Persia, but his troops were vigorously repulsed. He also furnished France with an army against Austria, and by the peace of Vienna acquired a province of Galicia. Swayed by France, Russia acceded to the "continental system" against England; but in 1810, she began to suffer severely from its effects, and soon meditated a change of conduct, the nature and effects of which properly belong to the next period.

Frederick the Great of PRUSSIA was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick William II. He reinstated his brother-in-law, the Stadtholder of Holland, and acquired the territories of the margrave of Anspach and Bareuth, by giving him a pension. Having succeeded in producing peace between Austria and the Porte, Frederick William II. entered into the convention of Pilnitz, in 1791, and was subsequently engaged in unprofitable hostilities against France. In 1793, by the second partition of Poland, he gained South-Prussia, Dantzic, and Thorn; and in 1795, by the third and final spoliation of that kingdom, he acquired South-Eastern-Prussia. Frederick William II. died in 1797, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick William III. who commenced his reign by maintaining peace and encouraging the arts. Prussia was a member of the armed neutrality against Great Britain in 1800, and as such took possession of Hanover, which she did not evacuate till the peace of Amiens. On the formation of the third coalition against France, Prussia maintained neutrality; but her territories were violated by the French army, and she prepared for war. In that spirit Frederick William III. concluded a convention with Russia at Potsdam; but no sooner had the battle of Austerlitz decided the war, than he entered into an alliance with Bonaparte, surrendering some of his own territories, and taking possession of Hanover. This excited the enmity of Great Britain and Sweden; and in 1806 Prussia found that nothing short of her dependence on France would satisfy Bonaparte. War was the consequence, and after suffering frightful disasters, Frederick William III. made a peace at Tilsit, by which his Westphalian provinces fell to Jerome Bonaparte; Warsaw to Saxony; Bialystok to Russia; Dantzic became a free town; and the ports of Prussia were closed against the English. The country was impoverished, the most oppressive contributions were levied; and though at the close of this period Prussia had experienced some improvement, she was still humiliated and depressed.

The history of GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND must now be noticed. In 1784 *William Pitt*, son of the first earl of Chatham, became prime minister. In 1786 he founded the sinking fund; and in the next year the abolition of the slave trade was first agitated. In 1787 criminals were first deported to New South Wales. George III. was afflicted with insanity in 1788, and a regency was proposed; but the king was restored to health the next year, when a public thanksgiving took place. In 1789 and 1790 the influence of the French revolution, which had for some time excited alarm, was very frequently discussed, and Mr. Pitt was among its most strenuous opposers. In 1793 the alien bill was passed, the French envoy was finally dismissed, and war was declared between the two nations. In May 1794 the government considered the

suspension of the habeas corpus act to be necessary, as a check upon sedition; but this measure was not carried without much popular discontent. In 1795 disturbances broke out in Ireland, which excited serious alarm, and required active measures to subdue them. A society, called 'The United Irishmen,' had been formed in Dublin in 1791, for the ostensible purposes of procuring a reform in parliament, and the removal of the disabilities imposed on the Roman catholics at the revolution. This society had extended rapidly, and served as a bond of union to the disaffected throughout Ireland. During this year an expedition of French emigrants sailed for Quiberon, and encountered a miserable failure. In 1796 it appeared that some of the Irish malcontents had sought for foreign assistance; and in the December of that year a French fleet, with 20,000 troops, under Hoche, left Brest for a descent on Ireland. The fleet anchored in Bantry bay, was dispersed by a storm, and after sustaining considerable damage returned home. The people of England, however, daily evinced a more determined resolution to restrain the influence of revolutionary France; and in the very month the descent was attempted in Ireland, a subscription loan of 18,000,000*l.* for enabling the government to prosecute the war, filled at London in less than sixteen hours. The occurrences of 1797 were of a threatening and alarming nature. In February 1200 French troops landed at Fisguard, but they were immediately made prisoners. In the same month the bank of England declined making payment of its notes in specie, and in March, with the sanction of the legislature, issued 20*s.* notes. In April an alarming mutiny broke out in the fleet at Portsmouth, which however was happily soon suppressed by an act of parliament raising the pay of the seamen, and a proclamation granting the king's pardon to the mutineers. The discontents in Ireland increased, and martial law was proclaimed in that country in May. At the same time a mutiny appeared in the fleet at Sheerness, and excited great apprehensions. The mutineers blocked up the trade of the Thames, and did not return to their duty till the close of June, when their leader, Parker, and several others, suffered death. The fleet soon wiped away its disgrace by gallantly defeating the Dutch off Camperdown. In June it was found necessary by parliament, in consequence of the spread of sedition, to suppress political clubs and reading rooms in Great Britain; and the Scots militia bill was followed by some riots in Scotland. The commerce, however, of Great Britain had improved greatly. The exports in 1787 amounted to 5,700,000*l.* and in 1797 they had increased to 29,217,041*l.* In 1798 the British people were further incited against France by its preparations to invade England, and the part it took with the Irish rebels. In March Ireland was declared in a state of actual rebellion; and in May hostilities commenced between the rebels and the king's troops at Naas. Several bloody engagements followed, which terminated almost uniformly to the disadvantage of the rebels. They had 3,000 men killed at New Ross, on the 5th of June; on the 9th, the insurgents of Wicklow were dispersed; on the 20th, a numerous detachment of the Wexford rebels were defeated; on the 21st, another body was defeated at Vinegar Hill; on the 22d, Wexford, their chief post, was taken; and on the 26th, the insurgents of Kilkenny were defeated, with the loss of 1,000 men killed, besides their colours, great quantities of ammunition, arms, and cattle. In July, the Wicklow insurgents were completely dispersed. A body of French troops landed in Killala bay in August, and they at first obtained some successes, but a column of the royal army attacked them, and they surrendered at discretion. The insurrection was put an end to in September, by the subjection of the Connaught rebels. In October, France despatched another fleet for the invasion of Ireland; but it was fallen in with by a British squadron, under sir J. B. Warren, who defeated it, capturing an 84 gun ship and five frigates. The voluntary contributions during this year, for the support of the government against the projected French invasion, amounted to upwards of 2,500,000*l.* besides 140,000*l.* remitted by the British residents in India. The exports were 34,000,000*l.* At the close of 1799, the coin in circulation amounted to 44,000,000*l.* In July 1800, a bill for uniting Great Britain and Ireland in one parliament received the royal assent, and was carried into effect on Jan. 1, 1801. In the following March, Mr. Pitt retired from office, in consequence of the king's repugnance to granting further concessions to the catholics, and was succeeded by Mr. Addington. In 1802, parliament voted 10,000*l.* to Dr. Jenner, a physician, who had rendered humanity a great service, by introducing vaccination. In 1803, a new insurrection broke out in Dublin, and the lord chief justice was murdered in the streets; but open violence was soon quelled, and two of the most conspicuous rebels were executed. During this year the French again threatened an invasion from Boulogne, and great preparations were made for their repulsion. On December 9, the yeomanry and volunteer corps alone in Great Britain amounted to 379,943 men. In the beginning of 1804, George III. was visited with a second attack of mental indisposition, but he speedily recovered. In May, Mr. Pitt returned to the ministry, and directed all the energies of the country against the machinations of France. The London Docks were opened in 1805; and in the same year lord Melville was impeached for malversation, as treasurer of the navy, and finally acquitted. On the 23rd of January 1806, Mr. Pitt died, aged forty-seven, leaving the reputation of one of the greatest ministers that England had ever known. He was succeeded in the ministry by his most conspicuous opponent, Mr. Fox, who acted in concert with Lord Grenville. On June 11, parliament resolved to abolish the slave trade. Mr. Fox died in the following September, but the whigs nevertheless maintained their superiority in the ministry. In February 1807, hostilities were commenced against Turkey; the slave-trade was abolished in March; in April, on the ministry attempting to carry the catholic question, the tories again came into power; and in November, an order in council was issued, declaring France to be in a state of blockade (in opposition to Bonaparte's Berlin decree), and prohibiting neutral vessels from trading with France or her allies. In the latter part of this year, Louis XVIII. of France, as Count de Lille, took up his residence in England. The United States of America resisted the British right of search, and in 1809, irritated by the order in council of 1807, and the Berlin and Milan decrees, passed the non-intercourse act. In the same year Great Britain concluded peace with Turkey; and October 25, being the commencement of the fiftieth year of the reign of George III. it was marked by a grand jubilee. In October 1810, the king's mental malady returned; and in February 1811, George Prince of Wales was appointed regent by the parliament, under certain restrictions. During this period Great Britain made extraordinary improvements in the facility of producing manufactures; and notwithstanding the enormous expences of the war, the resources of the United Kingdoms seemed to increase with their exigencies.

Although SPAIN possessed within itself the most ample resources, besides having the most productive colonies in the world, yet through misgovernment it was reduced to a melancholy condition. Charles III. restrained the inquisition from inflicting death; and, dying in 1788, he was succeeded by his son, Charles IV. who was a weak and worthless prince, and was entirely directed by his minister, Godoy, who had no just pretensions to his station. In 1793, Spain naturally took part in the war against the revolutionists of France; but she only exposed the inefficiency of her government, and in 1795 Godoy concluded a degrading peace. In the following year Spain became subservient to France, and she experienced the common consequences: her wealth was dissipated, her commerce was

destroyed, her fleets were annihilated, and it was ultimately only through the glorious struggle of the wreck of an heroic people, aided by foreign forces, that she was snatched from a state of degrading dependence. After losing a fleet off St. Vincent, she was compelled, at the peace of Amiens, to cede Trinidad to Great Britain, and Louisiana to France. On the renewal of hostilities, she purchased from France an appearance of neutrality; but French influence being apparent in all her actions, Great Britain seized upon a squadron of Spanish treasure-ships, without waiting for a formal declaration of war. In 1807, the unprincipled Godoy, who then directed her councils, entered into a treaty with France for the spoliation of Portugal: his share was to have been the principality of Algarves. The French troops entered Spain for the ostensible purpose of executing this treaty; but the real designs of Bonaparte were upon the crown of Charles IV. In March an insurrection, supposed to have been fomented by Bonaparte, occurred at Madrid and Aranjuez, in consequence of which Charles abdicated in favor of his son, who was proclaimed as Ferdinand VII. A few days after, the French under Murat took military possession of Madrid, and their oppression gave rise to a popular tumult on May 3, in which nearly 2,000 Spaniards were massacred. On the 5th,—Bonaparte induced the queen of Spain to declare her son Ferdinand VII. illegitimate, on which Charles IV. resumed the regal title; but Bonaparte, having decoyed the whole of the royal family into France,—on the 10th, compelled Charles again to abdicate, and all the princes to resign their pretensions in his own favor. He then sent them into the interior of France, and on June 6, he had his brother Joseph proclaimed king of Spain. But the Spaniards now understood and detested his perfidious conduct; the energies of the people were aroused, the nation refused to acknowledge any other king than Ferdinand VII. and the war of the Spanish patriots burst forth. A junta was formed at Seville, and Great Britain was appealed to for assistance. It has already been seen that the appeal was not in vain, and a glorious struggle for independence was commenced. Towards the close of 1809 the central junta was replaced by an executive directory, consisting of nine members; and at the commencement of 1810 the government was entrusted to a regency, which was established at Cadiz. An extraordinary meeting of the Cortes was convoked, but the members, instead of being nominated by the nobility, the clergy, and the towns, as in former times, were elected by the mass of the people. In 1811 they published a decree denouncing all negociation with France until Ferdinand VII. was fully restored to freedom.

PORTUGAL was a member of the first and second coalitions against France; and the queen becoming insane, in 1799 the prince of Brazil, the heir-apparent, assumed the regency. He concluded a peace with France in 1801; but Portugal continued to maintain her commercial relations with Great Britain. France made several attempts to induce the prince regent to abandon his connection with the English; and finding them without effect, in 1807 it entered into a treaty with Spain for the spoliation of Portugal. On the approach of the French troops, the royal family embarked for Brazil; an administrative junta was formed, of which the bishop of Oporto became president; and the unconditional evacuation of Portugal by the French was the only ground upon which the Portuguese would consent to negotiate for peace. Supported by Great Britain they finally drove the invader from their country in 1811.

It has already been seen that the ancient republics of ITALY were swept away, that the Austrian and Spanish authority was superseded, and that that country fell under the yoke of France. Her cities were barbarously despoiled of their most celebrated works of art, and in common with the greater part of continental Europe they lost their commerce and their independence. A considerable portion of *Upper Italy* was incorporated with France, and the remainder, after undergoing a variety of changes, formed a part of the *Kingdom of Italy*. The *Papal Dominions* were not more fortunate. Pope Pius VI. died a prisoner at Valencay in 1799, and in the next year cardinal Chiaramonte was elected pope at Venice, and assumed the name of Pius VII. In 1801 he agreed to a concordat with France for the re-establishment of the Roman Catholic religion in that country, and in 1804 he officiated at the coronation of Bonaparte; but in 1805, when Bonaparte took the title of king of Italy, Pius VII. refused to sanction the usurpation, and in 1808 and 1809 he was *stripped of all temporal power* and became the prisoner of France. The *Two Sicilies*, under Ferdinand IV. took part in the war against France in 1793, but they were compelled to conclude a disgraceful peace in 1796. In 1799, Naples, through the French directory, was declared the Parthenopeian republic, but in the same year the old constitution was restored amidst barbarous executions. The influence of France, however, again preponderated; and in 1806, after an attempt on the part of Ferdinand to become independent, Naples was taken possession of by the French as a conquered country, and Joseph Bonaparte was declared its king. Joseph being nominally raised to the throne of Spain in 1808, Joachim Murat was proclaimed his successor in Naples. He made several attempts to deprive Ferdinand IV. of Sicily, but they were frustrated by the British.

The OTTOMAN EMPIRE experienced a further reduction both in extent and power during the present period: besides being engaged in injurious external war, it was afflicted by great internal discord. Selim III. ascended the throne in 1789, and after being continually occupied in suppressing the revolts of the governors, he was deposed by the Janissaries in 1807 in favor of his nephew Mustafa IV.;—who in the next year, through the influence of the grand vizier Mustafa Bairaktar, gave way to Mahmud II. Selim III. perished in the second revolution. In the same year an insurrection took place against Mustafa Bairaktar, who after causing the deposed Mustafa IV. to be strangled, destroyed himself by an explosion of gunpowder. In 1811 a perfidious massacre of the Mamluks was perpetrated in the citadel of Cairo by the pacha, Muhammad Ali. Respecting the warlike transactions it is only necessary to add to what has been stated, that in 1807 a British squadron under sir J. T. Duckworth forced the passage of the Dardanelles;—but, after threatening Constantinople, found it necessary to retire;—and that the war with Russia, the progress of which was unfavorable to Turkey, was not concluded at the end of this period. The condition of BARBARY and MOROCCO underwent no alteration.

In PERSIA, (WESTERN) Aga Mahomed Khan having subdued all other pretenders, became the shah, and ruled with an iron hand, but with justice, and restored internal tranquillity. He subdued Georgia, which had put itself under the protection of Russia, and Khorassan. Aga was murdered in 1798, and succeeded by his nephew Futteh Ali, who reigned beyond this period. The British formed an intimate alliance with Futteh in 1800, as a security against France, and also a check upon the Afghan sovereign of eastern Persia, who threatened India with invasion. In the next year Georgia was incorporated with Russia.—In EASTERN PERSIA, Timur was succeeded in 1792 by his son Zeman, who occupied the throne in 1811.

In INDIA the British acquired an immense increase of territory and importance. Peace was made with Tippoo Saib in 1784, when affairs were put nearly on the same footing as they had been prior to hostilities. The rajah of Benares, delaying the payment of a promised sum, was deposed, and the princesses plundered and ill-treated. The dowager princesses of Oude experienced similar degradation; and their chief eunuchs were laid in irons and tortured in order to extort a surrender of the treasure. Mr. Hastings resigned the governor-generalship in 1785, and on his return to England was impeached by the commons in 1788, and acquitted by the lords in 1795. Lord Cornwallis became governor-general, and in 1790 the

British renewed hostilities against Tippoo, in consequence of his invading the possessions of the rajah of Travancore, their ally. The British armies suffered much, but continued to advance, and in 1792 stormed Seringapatam; when a treaty was concluded with Tippoo, by which he ceded one half of his dominions to the English and their allies (the nizam and the Mahrattas), and gave his sons as hostages. Tippoo had 40,000 infantry, besides a large body of cavalry; the British army amounted to 11,000 Europeans, and 31,600 natives; and the allies to about 40,000 men, of which 30,000 were cavalry. In 1793 the French settlements were reduced a third time by the English; and in that year sir J. Shore (afterwards lord Teignmouth) was appointed governor-general. The sons of Tippoo were restored in 1794. The Mahrattas being adverse to the intimate connection between the British and the nizam, made war against that prince, and compelled him to conclude a very disadvantageous peace. The death of the young peishwah, however, occurring immediately afterwards, and there being a dispute among the Mahratta chiefs respecting the succession, the nizam procured more favorable terms. Scindiah, the most powerful Mahratta chief, and who had possession of the person of the emperor Shah Allum II., successfully espoused the cause of the legitimate peishwah, and, adding greatly to his own territories and power, established his ascendancy in the Mahratta empire. During 1795-6, the English reduced the Dutch settlements in India, Malacca, and Ceylon, together with the isles of Banda and Amboyna. In 1798 the marquis Wellesley arrived in India as governor-general, and found affairs in a critical situation. A French party prevailed in the courts of the nizam and of Scindiah, under whose influence were the Poonah Mahrattas; the court of Berar was considered to be unfavorable; Tippoo was resolved upon another war; the finances had been greatly diminished by the expeditions against the Dutch settlements, and a considerable force was still occupied in maintaining possession of them. Lord Wellesley soon formed a new treaty with the nizam, and by firm measures overthrew the French party in his court. Finding it impossible to bring Tippoo to terms, he commenced hostilities against him in February 1799, and in the following May, Seringapatam was taken by assault, and Tippoo slain. His territories were divided between the British, the nizam, and a descendant of a Hindoo prince dethroned by Hyder Ali, who was under the protection of the British. Lord Wellesley then formed a close connection with the peishwah, to the exclusion of the French, but as it was openly opposed by Scindiah and the rajah of Benares, and secretly by Holkar, another Mahratta prince, war was commenced in April 1803; and after the British under lord Lake and gen. (sir Arthur) Wellesley had gained a rapid series of splendid triumphs, peace was concluded with the rajah on December 17, and with Scindiah on December 30. Scindiah resigned considerable territory; and the emperor Shah Allum II. was invested with the nominal sovereignty of Delhi and allowed a pension of 9,000*l.* a year. He died in 1807.

Under Minderajee-praw the BURMESE EMPIRE continued to flourish. He reduced Arracan; and commenced hostilities against the Siamese in 1786, which continued till 1796; when a peace was made on terms advantageous to the Burmese. When Arracan was conquered, many of the people fled to the British province of Chittagong, and afterwards by piracy annoyed the trade of Arracan so seriously, that in 1794 Minderajee sent a body of 5,000 troops to apprehend the culprits. The matter was satisfactorily settled by the British government; and a British agent visited Burmah in 1795 and was received with respect. Of SIAM it is only necessary to say that it maintained its independence, but was little known in Europe.

In the course of this period, TONG-KIN, COCHIN-CHINA, Tsiampa, Cambodia, and Laos were formed into one empire as they exist at present, and known first, by the name of *Anam*, and then of *Viet-nam*. Caung-shung being deprived of his hereditary territories by three usurpers, retired for some time into Siam; and under the direction of Adran, a French emissary, sent his son and heir to France, where the prince concluded a treaty with Louis XVI. in 1787, and returned with his conductor to his native country. He was accompanied by several French officers; and Caung-shung, who has been styled the Peter of Anam, having already made head against his enemies, availed himself of their superior tactics, and the excellent advice of Adran, and became undisputed monarch of the whole country in 1804. Like his predecessors he acknowledged the supremacy of China.

The Tsing dynasty maintained its authority in CHINA and its dependencies; and the Man-tchu Tartars became wholly amalgamated with the Chinese nation. In 1793 China was visited by a British Embassy. Kien-long voluntarily resigned the crown in 1796, after having reigned sixty-one years, and was succeeded by Kia-king.

The independence of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA being generally acknowledged, they soon found that the constitution they had hastily adopted in the time of hostilities was exceedingly defective. Conventions of the different states were consequently held, and after a warm and in many respects a patriotic contest between the two great parties, the Federalists and the Anti-Federalists, the former were successful. A new constitution was promulgated in 1789; the illustrious Washington became president of the young republic; the trade, population, extent, and importance of which, rapidly increased. A treaty of amity and commerce was made with Great Britain in 1794; and in 1796, Washington resigned, and John Adams was elected president. In 1801 Mr. Jefferson became president; and in 1803 Louisiana was purchased from France. The question of the right of search was mooted in 1807, in which year an American frigate resisted a search for British deserters, and some lives were lost; and that occurrence, together with the British order in council, in opposition to the Berlin and Milan decrees, excited great discontent against Great Britain. In the July of the same year British armed vessels were prohibited from entering the harbours and waters of the United States; and in December an embargo was ordered, to prevent the departure of American vessels, and to exclude all foreign traders. Mr. Madison was elected president in 1809, in which year the non-intercourse act was passed against Great Britain and France. In January 1811 an act was passed prohibiting the importation of British merchandise; and the causes of dispute being still unsettled, there was strong reason for apprehending an appeal to arms.

Towards the close of this period independence dawned on SOUTH AMERICA; and the novel spectacle of a *Free Republic of Negroes* was displayed in the Island of Hayti or St. Domingo.—In 1808 the Portuguese court landed in Brazil, accompanied by 15,000 troops and about 11,000 Portuguese emigrants, and Rio de Janeiro became the seat of government.—Instigated by the French revolutionists, the Negroes of the French part of St. Domingo, or Hispaniola, in 1803, declared the independence of the island under its original name of Hayti. In 1804, Dessalines, a ferocious negro, was proclaimed emperor, but he perished in a new revolution in 1806; when there appeared two parties, the one at Cape Francois, where Christophe, a negro, was declared king; and the other at Port au Prince, where a republic was formed, under Petion, a mulatto.—Some of the Spanish possessions also felt the effects of the French revolution, and of the miserable misrule under which they had groaned. In 1806-7 an attempt was made to create an insurrection in Caraccas; and in 1810 a confederation was formed in Venezuela to shake off the Spanish yoke. The revolutionists however had made but little progress at the end of this period

A.D. 1828. END OF THE GENERAL PEACE.

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TWENTY-FIRST PERIOD.

FROM THE GREATEST EXTENSION OF THE FRENCH EMPIRE, A. D. 1811. TO THE END OF THE GENERAL PEACE, A. D. 1828.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAP.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
The British Empire, embracing The British Islands Gibraltar, Malta, the Ionian Isles The Presidencies of Bombay, Bengal and Madras, their dependencies and allies Ceylon, the Isle of France, &c. New Holland (part of), the Cape of Good Hope Sierra Leone, and other settlements in Africa; St. Helena, Ascension The Canadas, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick Newfoundland, and other parts of North America Jamaica, St. Lucia, Barbadoes, Dominica Bahama Isles, Leeward Caribbee Isles Grenada, Tobago, Trinidad British Guiana	Crimson.
Portugal, possessing Madeira, Cape Verd Isles, the Azores Settlements in Africa; Goa, Macao	Dark Blue.
Spain, possessing the Balearic Isles The Canaries, Cuba, Porto Rico The Philippines	Light Blue.
The French Empire, embracing France and Corsica French Guiana, Guadaloupe, Martinique Bourbon	Yellow.
The Netherlands, possessing Luxemburg Dutch Guiana, Curacoa, St. Eustatius Java (part), the Moluccas	Orange.
Germany, Independent States, and Switzerland	Chocolate.
Denmark, with Lauenburg and Iceland	Red.
Sweden and Norway	Brown.
The Russian Empire, embracing Russia, Siberia, Kamtschatka, Poland The territory north of the Pruth & Danube The Crimea, Georgia, Daghestan, & Shirvan Settlements in America	Dark Green.

EMPIRES AND COUNTRIES.	COLOURS.
Prussia, composed of Prussia-proper Pomerania and Rugen, Brandenburg The Duchy of Saxony, Thuringia Lusatia and Silesia	Yellow-Green.
The Austrian Empire, embracing Bohemia, Moravia, Austria-proper Tyrol, Styria, Saltzburg Hungary, Galicia, Lombardy and Venice Illyria (comprising Croatia, Sclavonia, &c.)	Purple
Independent Italy and Islands States:—Sardinia, Parma, Modena, Lucca Tuscany, States of the Church, and the Two Sicilies	Lilac.
The Ottoman Empire, embracing Moldavia, Wallachia, Bulgaria, Servia Bosnia, Croatia (part) Albania, Roumelia, Macedonia, Thessaly Livadia, the Morea, Negropont, &c. Asia Minor, Armenia (part), Syria Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, & Algiers (tributary)	Green.
Morocco	Olive Brown.
Persia (Eastern and Western)	Olive Green.
India; Native Powers, and Birmah, Siam, and Vietnam	Grey.
The Chinese Empire, embracing China, Mandshuria, Mongolia and Little Bucharia Formosa and Leoo Keoo Isles, tributary The Corea and Tibet, acknowledging the supremacy of China	Light Brown.
The United States of America, possessing Florida, &c.	Pink.
The New States of America: Mexico, Guatimala, Colombia Peru, Brazil, Bolivia Chile, Paraguay, Buenos Ayres; Hayti	Pink Grey.

WE have now arrived at our concluding period. Like its immediate precursor it will be found to merit serious attention. The restoration of the ancient dynasty of Bourbon to the throne of France, the general pacification of Europe, and the admission of some of the Spanish American colonies to the rights of free and sovereign states, are among its leading incidents. The old world was restored to tranquillity, liberty extended her sway in the new one, and navigation and commerce made fresh advances towards perfection.

FRANCE is again the country which first requires consideration. It was against her troops, and ultimately upon her soil, that the greater part of

civilised Europe contended for peace; and so completely are her foreign and domestic transactions mixed up with the great events of the time, that we shall not attempt to separate them, but for the sake of clearness as well as of conciseness, at once give a sketch of her different proceedings and their consequences. That the ambition of Bonaparte was insatiable there can be no doubt; but it should also be observed that imperious circumstances, the result of his previous conduct, left him now no opportunity for pause. He was compelled to aim at new usurpations and new spoils, for the gratification of his followers, who had hitherto lived by the desolation of their neighbours. He was in reality but the leader of a vast band of lawless plunderers, whose country contained no wealth, either from nature or from industry, adequate to the maintainance of their gigantic military establishments; and therefore, had he attempted to adopt a system of justice and moderation, in doing so he would probably have run no less risk than he did in an endeavour to pursue his rash and murderous course. His most powerful and implacable foes, the British, together with their allies, still prosecuted the war in the peninsula of Spain and Portugal with undiminished vigour and great success. The position which lord Wellington had taken within the lines of Torres Vedras in the October of 1810, was found impregnable, and the French suffered dreadfully through the want of provisions. On March 4, 1811, the British were reinforced, and on the following day Massena suddenly broke up his camp, and made a disorderly retreat, in which he experienced great losses, and his troops perpetrated the most frightful atrocities. The French retook Badajoz, and lord Wellington, after defeating Soult on the Albuera, attempted its recovery; but Marmont, who had succeeded Massena, formed a junction with Soult, and the allies again retired into Portugal. Military operations were also carried on in other parts of Spain. Sir Thomas Graham defeated marshal Victor at Barossa, near Cadiz; but Suchet was successful in the eastern provinces, and committed a horrible massacre in Tarragona. Lord Wellington commenced the campaign of 1812 by investing and carrying Cuidad Rodrigo in the face of Marmont's superior army; and in March he stormed Badajoz successfully. In May all communication was cut off between the French army in the south, and that in the north under Marmont, by sir R. Hill; and on July 22, after carrying the forts of Salamanca, the allies completely routed Marmont's forces. After pursuing the defeated army, lord Wellington entered Madrid on August 12. Soult immediately raised the siege of Cadiz, which had lasted two years, evacuated Andalusia, and formed a junction with Joseph Bonaparte in Murcia, and then with Souham's (late Marmont's) army. Thus opposed, lord Wellington raised the siege of Burgos, which he had undertaken, in October, retreated to the Tormes, and thence, in November, to Rodrigo. In December the Cortes appointed lord Wellington, *generalissimo of the Spanish forces*. While these transactions were taking place, the north of Europe became the scene of great events; but previous to narrating them it may be right to notice the disputes between Bonaparte and the pope, which first excited public attention in 1811. When the despot of France seized on the ecclesiastical states he was excommunicated by the head of the Romish church, and Pius VII, faithful to his principles, had ever since resolutely refused the confirmation of every bishop who was nominated by one without the pale of the church. Bonaparte thought it possible to dispense with the papal sanction; and under that impression he convoked what he called a national council, which was a body composed of French and Italian bishops. With them he calculated that his will would prove paramount to every other authority, but he was deceived: the prelates at first declared that they had no power to act, and notwithstanding the imprisonment of three of them, all that Bonaparte could obtain was an expression of their readiness to communicate with the government under the approbation of the pope. Pius VII, however, who resided at Savona, declared the council void, it having been assembled without his authority; and thus Bonaparte entirely failed, and twenty sees in France and Italy continued without bishops. Before the conclusion of 1810, Russia felt severely the baleful effects of the "continental system," into which in common with Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark she had been drawn by France; and the conduct of Bonaparte in seizing on Oldenburg and extending the French empire to the shores of the Baltic excited still further her apprehensions and discontent. Alexander protested against the incorporation of Oldenburg (part of the patrimony of his family) with France, and ultimately prepared for hostilities. Bonaparte entered into negociations, and declared it to be his desire to come to an amicable arrangement; but he employed the winter of 1811 in making stupendous preparations for war, and hostilities seemed inevitable. In January 1812 Bonaparte occupied Swedish Pomerania and the isle of Rugen, on the plea that the "continental system" had not been rigidly enforced; and demanded that Sweden and Denmark should form a confederation under the protection of France; offering to procure Finland for Sweden on condition of her furnishing 30,000 troops against Russia. Sweden however adhered to that power, and even formed a treaty with it against France. On February 24, Bonaparte made a treaty with Prussia, by which he compelled that power to furnish him with 20,000 men against Russia. A few days afterwards, March 14, a defensive treaty against Russia was formed between Austria and France, by which those powers undertook to furnish reciprocally 30,000 men. From this moment the preparations of Bonaparte were entirely without disguise. The princes of the confederation of the Rhine were compelled to furnish their contingents, and on June 12 he declared war against Russia. On the 24th of that month he crossed the Niemen at the head of 587,000 men, of whom 73,000 were cavalry. Russia opposed to this mass but 260,000 men, and consequently acted entirely on the defensive; but she evinced great determination, and prudently concluded a treaty of peace with Great Britain on July 18, and another with Turkey on August 14. The French and their auxiliaries advanced rapidly into the country, and received no severe check until they reached Smolensko; where the Russians under Barclay de Tolly fought with great bravery, and although defeated left their invaders but a barren victory, for they destroyed the town by fire and laid waste the surrounding country. Koutousoff then took the command of the Russian forces, and when the French had advanced to within twenty-five leagues of Moscow, he gave them battle:—when 65,000 men of the two armies were left dead upon the field without much advantage to either side; but the invader having still upon the spot 120,000 men, and Koutousoff only 70,000, the latter continued his retreat, and Bonaparte entered Moscow on September 14. Thus far successful, Bonaparte hoped to dictate the terms of peace to Russia from its ancient capital, as he had done on former occasions to Austria and Prussia from Vienna and Berlin. But his expectations were rapidly dissipated. He found Moscow abandoned, although containing great wealth; and two days after he entered it, the city appeared to be on fire in several places. Every effort to stop the conflagration proved useless, and the supplies which had reanimated the courage of the invading troops being consumed, famine stared them in the face. Of 9,158 houses only 2,041 were preserved. Bonaparte now made overtures for peace, but they were rejected by Alexander, who replied that the war was only about to commence. Thus miserably situated, the invaders were compelled to retire, and on October 15, they commenced one of the most disastrous retreats ever known. They took the route towards Smolensko, and besides being dreadfully harassed by the Russian troops, found the country every where deserted and laid waste. On their arrival at Smolensko, they had lost 40,000 men, and on November 9 their sufferings were increased by the setting in of most inclement weather. Koutousoff having taken post at

Krasnoi the fugitives were obliged to open a passage at the expense of 13,000 men. Two days afterwards 11,000 men of the corps commanded by Ney laid down their arms. Assisted by a corps of reserve under Victor, Bonaparte reached the Bérésina, the passage of which river was forced with admirable bravery, but at the cost of 30,000 of the French or their allies. The main body of the Russian army now ceased to pursue the wretched remains of Bonaparte's forces, but they were dreadfully harassed by the Cossacks until they reached Wilna. Bonaparte himself deserted them at Smorgonie on December 5; he left Murat in command, and passing through Warsaw in disguise arrived in Paris on December 18. The remnant of the invading army, consisting of about 30,000 men, was conducted over the Niemen by Murat, and pursued an irregular retreat, making their first permanent halt on the Elbe on March 10, 1813. The Austrians under Schwartzenberg, in conjunction with the Saxons under Regnier fought several indecisive battles with the army of Tchitchakoff, and after the passing of the Bérésina retired to Pultusk. Other engagements were fought by the Russians under Wittgenstein with the left wing of the French army; in these the Prussians under York rendered considerable service;—but no sooner was that commander acquainted with the retreat of Bonaparte than he concluded a convention with the Russians and justified himself on the plea that he had been abandoned. This defection, though trifling in itself, produced a great sensation in Prussia, and served Bonaparte as a pretext to demand new levies in France without exposing the tremendous losses he had sustained. His wishes were complied with. On January 11, 1813, 350,000 men were placed at his disposal, and he seized on the funds of the corporations to supply his exigencies. Prussia now applied for certain indemnities which had been promised her by treaties in 1812, and was refused. Frederick-William made a general appeal to his subjects for support in resisting the yoke of France, and was enthusiastically answered. On Febuary 27, 1813, he formed a close offensive and defensive alliance with Russia; in a few days after the two monarchs met in perfect amity at Breslau; and on March 17, Prussia declared war against France. This was followed by the dissolution of the confederation of the Rhine, which was formally announced by Koutousoff on March 23. The king of Saxony adhered to Bonaparte, but Sweden entered the new coalition against him, on the conditions that she should receive Norway and subsidies from Great Britain. Under these circumstances the campaign of 1813 commenced, in which Bonaparte had 308,000 disposable men, the Prussians 51,000, and the Russians 166,000 men. On April 2, a Russian corps under Dœrenberg compelled a French corps under Morand to lay down their arms. On the 25th. of the same month Bonaparte took the command of his army; and on May 2, at the head of 115,000 men he gave battle to the Prussians and Russians under Wittgenstein, who amounted to 69,000 men. The engagement occurred near Gross-Gerschen and the French had the advantage: Alexander and Frederick-William were present. The allies retreated the next day upon the right of the Elbe, in order to be nearer their reinforcements, and took up their position at Bautzen. On May 21, Bonaparte again gave them battle and the allies retired. Five days afterwards the Prussian general Blücher obtained a decisive advantage over a French corps under Maison, capturing the whole of its artillery. On June 4, an armistice was concluded. Bonaparte was desirous of time to procure reinforcements, but the allies being now fully prepared for active measures, agreed to a temporary cessation of hostilities only at the instance of Austria who had made some proposals to France. Bonaparte accepted the mediation of that power, but himself entertained no wish for peace; he believed that Austria was still favorable to him; while the allies knew by treaties the contrary to be the fact. A congress was held at Prague; but August 10, the term of the armistice, arrived while the parties were still disputing, and on the 12th, Austria, finding her propositions entirely rejected, declared war against France, and consolidated the *sixth coalition* against that power. The monarchs of Austria, Prussia, and Russia met together at Prague and resolved to accompany their principal army, which was under Schwartzenberg, throughout the campaign. On July 10, Denmark became the close ally of Bonaparte in opposition to the coalition. The forces of the coalition were divided into seven armies:—The army of Bohemia, under Schwartzenberg, 273,700 men strong; the army of the north, under Bernadotte, 154,000 strong; the army of Silesia, under Blücher, 95,000 strong; the Austrian army on the frontiers of Bavaria, under Reuss, 42,700 strong; the Austrian army in Italy under Hiller, 50,000; the Austrian army of reserve under Ferdinand of Wurtemburg 60,000; and the Russian army of reserve under Bennigsen, 57,000. To these forces Bonaparte opposed 462,000 men, besides the army of Bavaria, which observed that of Reuss, and 40,000 men in Italy under Eugene Beauharnois. On the renewal of hostilities, Silesia, Saxony, and for some time the Marche, were the theatre of war. Berlin was covered by the army of the north, a division of which under Bülow defeated Oudinot at Gross-Beeren and saved that capital. Silesia was freed from the French by Blücher, who defeated Macdonald, August 26, on the Katzbach, and drove him headlong out of the country. The Bohemian army advanced upon Dresden and attacked that city some hours after Bonaparte had entered it with reinforcements. After a bloody engagement which lasted two days, the allies were repulsed: Moreau who had joined them on the invitation of Bernadotte having been mortally wounded. Bonaparte immediately despatched Vandamme with 30,000 troops to cut off their retreat, but his progress was most gallantly checked by 8,000 Russians under Ostermann-Tolstoy, who being reinforced by some regiments maintained their position till night, when Barclay de Tolly arrived with fresh assistance, and on the next day, August 30, the celebrated battle of Culm was fought, which ended in the capture of Vandamme and the annihilation of his corps. Bonaparte then made a desperate attempt upon Berlin. Ney was despatched with 80,000 men against that capital, but he was totally defeated at Dennewitz by the army of the north on September 6, and pursued to the banks of the Elbe. Bonaparte now left Dresden at the head of 125,000 men, in the hope of combating singly the armies of his opponents, but they so manœuvred as to insure their junction at a given signal, and on the plains of Leipzig was decided the domination of Bonaparte. He mustered 171,000 men, and the allies, when their forces were united, nearly 300,000. Different affairs preceded this great struggle. On October 16, the Bohemian army, then alone, had three indecisive engagements at Wachaw, Connewitz, and Lindenau; and on the same day Blücher defeated Marmont at Mœckern. On the following day the armies of Bernadotte, Blücher and Bennigsen, who approached the field of battle of Leipzig, were engaged, but no important result ensued. Bonaparte now for the first time foresaw the possibility of a defeat, and sent Bertrand to Weissenfels to secure the bridge of the Saale. On the 18th. he proposed an armistice and peace, but was disregarded, and the "battle of nations" commenced. The French maintained their position, until the arrival of Bernadotte and Blücher with their forces, when they were compelled to retire to the gates of Leipzig. During the night Bonaparte commenced his retreat upon Weissenfels, leaving Macdonald and Poniatowski to defend the city. On the next morning the allies renewed the attack; Bonaparte fled, and as soon as he had crossed the only bridge on the Elster, which river skirted the city, it was blown up. The divisions of Macdonald and Poniatowski were thus enclosed; Poniatowski perished in the river, but Macdonald and his forces, together with the king of Saxony, were made prisoners by the allies.

Troops from every nation in Europe were engaged in this battle. Bonaparte lost 70,000 men, and the allies above 40,000. Bonaparte with the remains of his army fled precipitately towards Mayence, and was greatly harassed by the Cossacks. On his arrival at Hanau he found the passage disputed by a new enemy. The king of Bavaria had joined the allies, and Wrede now occupied Hanau with 40,000 men. He opposed the progress of Bonaparte, who during the 30th and 31st of October lost 25,000, and on arriving at the left bank found his army reduced to 35,000 men. Dresden with 27,000 men, Dantzic with 20,000 men, and Torgau with 10,000 men speedily surrendered to the allies. Great changes occurred in Germany. The kingdom of Westphalia and the grand-duchies of Berg and Frankfort were abolished; the electors of Hanover and Hesse-Cassel, and the dukes of Brunswick and Oldenburg re-entered their patrimonies; and the confederation of the Rhine was entirely dissolved, by the whole of its members, excepting the king of Saxony and the princes of Isembourg and Leyen, joining with the allies. In Italy, Hiller having made himself master of the Tyrol, Eugene Beauharnois was obliged to retire within the Adige. In the beginning of 1813, Soult was recalled from Spain, and on June 21, Jourdan, his successor, suffered a signal defeat from the allies under Wellington at Vittoria. The French lost the whole of their artillery and 18,000 men, and Joseph abandoned the throne of Spain. After taking St. Sebastian, Wellington forced the French to cross the Bidassoa, and on October 7, at the head of the British, Spanish and Portuguese forces he commenced the invasion of France. The French, under Soult who had again taken the command, retired upon Bayonne. Having returned to Paris, Bonaparte announced his intention to continue the war by requiring fresh levies. He however appeared ready to treat for peace, and the allies proposed the bases agreed upon at Tœplitz, by which the Rhine was to form the frontier of France, and the kingdom of Holland to be given to a brother of Bonaparte. His tergiversation however gave Great Britain an opportunity of changing the designs of the continental monarchs, who resolved to adhere to the plan suggested by Pitt in 1805, which was to replace France in the territorial position she occupied immediately prior to the revolutionary war. In Holland the people burst the shackles of France, and on December 3, Frederick William of Orange was proclaimed sovereign prince of the united Netherlands. The allies invaded France in the north with three armies, viz:—the grand army comprising 261,000 men; the army of Silesia comprising 137,000 men; and the army of the north, comprising 174,000. They crossed the Rhine on December 20, 1813, and on January 1, 1814. On the 14th Denmark concluded a peace with Great Britain and Sweden; Great Britain retained Heligoland but restored the Danish West India islands; Sweden received Norway in exchange for Swedish Pomerania and Rugen; and Denmark joined the allies. Mortier attacked the grand army on January 24, at Bar-sur-Aube but was defeated. On the 25th. Bonaparte left Paris and commenced a series of attacks on Blücher, which terminated on Febuary 1, in his own defeat at La Rothiere. Negociations for peace were again commenced on February 3, and continued to March 15, when Bonaparte having gained some partial successes, the conferences were broken up. While they were being carried on, Great Britain, Austria, Prussia and Russia formed a quadruple alliance, which had for its object the restoration of the balance of power in Europe. Bonaparte was repulsed by the grand army on March 20, at Arcis-sur-Aube; after which he retired across the Marne above Vitry, and manœuvring towards the Meuse threatened the communication of the allies with the Rhine but left the route to Paris open. The allies detached a body of cavalry after him, which he mistook for their advanced guard, and with their main force marched direct upon Paris, before which capital they arrived, on March 29, after having driven Marmont and Mortier headlong before them. On the 30th. they stormed the heights of Belville and Montmartre, and entered Paris the next day. The French senate deposed Bonaparte on April 2, and on the 6th. proclaimed Louis XVIII. king of France. Bonaparte did not discover his error until March 27, and on hearing the fate of the capital he retired to Fontainebleau, where, on April 11, he was compelled to sign his abdication. He was allowed to retain his imperial title and the sovereignity of Elba, to which island he was conveyed, and the states of Parma, Placenza, and Guastalla, were secured to Maria Louisa and her son. While these transactions were taking place, Wellington was joined by the duke of Angouleme, and issued a proclamation inviting the French to re-establish the throne of St. Louis. On February 27 he defeated Soult at Orthes; and early in March Bourdeaux opened its gates to the allies and declared for the Bourbons. Still successful, on April 10, Wellington stormed Soult's intrenched positions around Toulouse, and held the French army encaged. While in this situation news of the abdication of Bonaparte and the restoration of the Bourbons arrived, and hostilities between the armies were suspended by convention. In Italy also important changes were effected. Murat joined the allies in January 1814, and Eugéne Beauharnois being unsupported, resigned the kingdom of Italy by convention to the Austrian troops and retired into Germany. Louis XVIII. entered Paris on May 3, and concluded a general peace with the allies on the 30th, by which and a congress subsequently held at Vienna the pacification of Europe was arranged in the following manner:—France obtained the same boundaries as on January 1, 1792, with the addition of the departments of Vaucluse and Montblanc and some frontier districts; she further recovered all her colonies except the Isle of France, Tobago and St. Lucia, which were retained by Great Britain; and agreed to abolish the slave trade within five years. Great Britain retained Malta and obtained the exclusive protection of the Ionian islands, which had been formed into a republic under the protection of Russia and Turkey on the republic of Venice being dissolved. Austria recovered the Tyrol and Vorarlberg, the Illyrian provinces, the Venetian territories and her ancient dominions in Italy. Prussia regained all her lost territories between the Elbe and the Rhine, except Anspach, Bayreuth, Hildesheim, and East-Friesland; recovered a portion of the grand Duchy of Warsaw; and obtained one half of the kingdom of Saxony; Swedish Pomerania; the Orange Nassau possessions (in exchange for Luxemburg); and a considerable accession of provinces on the Rhine. Russia obtained the chief part of the grand Duchy of Warsaw, which was annexed to it under the name of the kingdom of Poland. Norway was finally united to Sweden. Denmark in exchange for Swedish Pomerania and Rugen received the duchy of Lauenburg. Germany regained nearly the same boundaries as before the revolutionary war in 1792; and its sovereign princes and free cities were united under the denomination of the Germanic League. The seventeen provinces of the Netherlands were re-united under William Frederic, prince of Orange, as William I, *king of the Netherlands*, who obtained besides the grand duchy of Luxemburg. The Swiss cantons, saved from civil discord only by the interference of the allies, were increased from nineteen to twenty-two, by the accession of Geneva, Neufchatel, and the Vallais; a new federal compact was entered into, and their independence and neutrality were secured. Besides the arrangements already noticed in Italy, the following were effected—the pope was reinstated in his territories excepting Avignon and a trifling district north of the Po; the king of Sardinia regained all his territories with the boundaries of 1792, except Carouges and part of Savoy, and further obtained Genoa with its territory of 1792; the house of Austro Este was reinstated in Modena; the archduke Ferdinand of Austria was

reinstated as grand duke of Tuscany; the ex-queen of Etruria (daughter of Charles IV of Spain) obtained Lucca; Ferdinand IV. was (ultimately) reinstated as king of the two Sicilies. The boundaries of Spain and Portugal were declared to be the same as in 1792.—But while this settlement was making, the peace of Europe was once more alarmingly disturbed by Bonaparte. On the restoration of the Bourbons, France appeared perfectly tranquil, and one of the first acts of Louis XVIII. was to grant freely a constitutional charter, which regulated the royal and all other power within the realm. This repose however was but transitory. The military began to long for the return of the great robber, who had so often furnished them with opportunities for plunder, and Bonaparte himself was no stranger to their desires. The allies too, by allowing him to retain the imperial title and the free sovereignty of any territory, however small, had unintentionally sustained his importance; and further by their hesitation respecting the confirmation of Murat in the throne of Naples they induced that leader again to attach himself to the interests of the founder of his fortunes. Bonaparte suddenly embarked from Elba with about 1,100 men on February 26, 1815, and landed at Cannes near Antibes on March 1. He successfully appealed to his former comrades, and pretending to be sustained by Austria, he commenced a triumphant march to Paris. On his approach Louis XVIII. retired, first to Lille and thence to Ghent, and the usurper entered Paris, without bloodshed on March 20. The eight powers assembled in congress at Vienna at once declared that he had placed himself without the pale of the civil and social relations of life, and took the most active measures for his dethronement. A mass of 1,365,000 troops prepared for the invasion of France, but the fate of Bonaparte was decided by about 200,000. The allies divided their forces into four armies: that of the low countries commanded by Wellington and composed of 71,000 British, Hanoverian, Brunswick, Belgian and Nassau troops; and that of the lower Rhine commanded by Blucher, and composed of 110,000 Prussians,—decided the struggle. The forces of Bonaparte amounted to 360,000 men, including 147,000 employed in garrisons. He himself commanded his chief army, which consisted of 130,000 men, and commenced the campaign on June 15, by crossing the Sambre at Charleroi, and forcing a division of Prussians to retire upon Fleurus. The duke of Brunswick hastened with 20,000 troops from Brussels to support the Prussians, and was killed on June 16, while gallantly heading an attack at Quatre-bras: the French however, under Ney, suffered considerably. On the same day Blücher was defeated at Ligny, and retired, but in the most perfect order, to Brie. Bonaparte then immediately turned his strength against Wellington, and attacked him at Waterloo on June 18. The combat was continued with great spirit and various success from noon until 4 P. M., when Bulow's corps of Prussians, conducted by Blucher, emerged from a wood, and fell suddenly upon the right wing of the French army. On their appearance Bonaparte appeared to lose his faculties; his army, seized with terror, fled with precipitation; and he himself with difficulty escaped captivity. The Germans gave this great and decisive battle the name of la Belle Alliance, from a farm at which Wellington and Blucher met immediately after the triumph, and the French called it after *Mont St. Jean*, but it was generally distinguished by the title of THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO. Out of 130,000 troops the French lost on June 16 and 18, above 60,000: the English lost 14,000 on the 18th.; and the Prussians 33,000 on the 16th, and 18th inclusive. The routed army was furiously pursued, chiefly by the Brunswickers and Prussians, who inflicted a dreadful vengeance on multitudes for the losses they themselves had sustained; and the allies marched directly upon Paris. Bonaparte arrived in that capital on June 20, and was compelled to abdicate, a second time, on the 22nd. He retired first to Malmaison and thence to Rochefort, and not trusting to a meditated flight to North America, he surrendered himself and suite unconditionally to Captain Maitland of the British ship Bellerophon. On July 15, in a letter to the prince regent he compared himself with Themistocles, seeking an asylum among "the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous of his enemies." The Bellerophon conveyed him to Torbay, from whence by the unanimous agreement of the allied sovereigns he was deported by the British ship Northumberland, for safe custody, to the island of St. Helena, where he was landed on October 17, 1815, and at which place he died on May 5, 1821. Bonaparte having abdicated, the French named a provisional government, who sent commissioners to treat with the allies; but the proposals not providing for the restoration of the Bourbons, they were altogether rejected. Paris surrendered to Wellington and Blucher on July 3, and on the 7th. the British entered it from the side of Passy and the Prussians from that of Issy. Louis XVIII. returned to his capital on the following day. The only partizans of Bonaparte, who suffered death were, marshal Ney and colonel Labédoyère, who had committed the grossest acts of treachery; minor punishments were inflicted on several. The allies were convinced that to secure the tranquillity of France they must adopt more vigorous measures than those of 1814, and they made it a part of their plan to occupy the chief fortresses in the kingdom. They had many other difficulties to surmount, and it was not until November 20, that the second pacification of Paris was concluded. By it France was restricted to the boundaries of 1790 (the Netherlands, Prussia, Austria, Switzerland and Sardinia receiving portions of the ceded country); to pay 700,000,000 of francs to the allies, and to bear the further expense of maintaining an allied army of occupation of 150,000 men (in her frontier fortresses) for five years. By additional articles the contracting powers agreed to concert together for the definitive and entire abolition of the slave trade; and France undertook to discharge the claims of the subjects of the allies upon her government. On the same day also Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia entered into a close alliance for the maintainance of the tranquillity of Europe on the basis then established; the three latter powers having on September 26, formed a contract which was called the Holy Alliance, which bound them to consider themselves as members of one christian nation, and delegated by providence to govern three branches of the same family. All the christian powers of Europe excepting Sweden, which had not taken any part in the war, acceded to the pacification of November 20; and the sovereigns of the whole entered into the Holy Alliance, excepting the king of Great Britain, who approved of it, but could not sign it, because according to the constitution of England the monarch signs nothing without the countersign of a responsible minister. No formal agreement was considered necessary to provide for the restoration of the numerous and splendid works of art which Bonaparte and his myrmidons had forcibly taken from other countries, but the representatives of the different rightful owners stripped the walls of the Louvre of the fruits of barbarous plunder. Louis XVIII. exercised his power with prudence and firmness, and France again knew tranquillity, and freedom from military despotism. In the spring of 1817 the allies voluntarily diminished the army of occupation one fifth, and in the following year the remainder was withdrawn and the fortresses were restored. In 1820 the government was rendered more rigorous in consequence of some dissentions and revolutions which had occurred in Spain and Portugal; and in 1823 France under the shelter of the Holy Alliance but in opposition to the voice of Great Britain perpetrated an unprincipled and unprovoked invasion of Spain for the reestablishment of the absolute power of the sovereign of that kingdom. It was successful. Louis XVIII. died in September 1824, and was succeeded by his brother, the count d'Artois,

under the title of Charles X. He removed the censorship from the press but renewed it in 1826, and devoting himself to the clergy reinstated the jesuits in all their privileges. In 1827 he disbanded the Parisian national guard in consequence of the freedom of their opinions; but a more liberal ministry soon directed his councils, when in common with England and Russia, France took an active part in behalf of the Greeks, and the pretensions of the clergy were restrained. In 1828 the ships of France in the Mediterranean were annoyed by the Algerine cruisers; but at the close of this period France was restored to prosperity, her commerce had become extensive, her population was well provided for, and her resources were so considerable as again to render her one of the leading powers of Europe.

Of the legitimate princes of GERMANY the king of Saxony alone adhered to Bonaparte after his monstrous invasion of Russia and its fatal consequences. The rest, as soon as prudence would permit them, joined with the allies; and the result was, that at the general pacification of Europe, the king of Saxony was stripped of half his dominions while the other ancient houses were either reinstated in their hereditary possessions or received some adequate compensation: Hanover was raised into a kingdom. By the congress held at Vienna the German states, including part of the dominions of Austria, Prussia, and the Netherlands, together with the free cities, were formed into a federal union called the *Germanic League*, but left without any acknowledged head. The members of the confederation were free to form foreign alliances, provided they concluded no treaty injurious to the general safety, or to that of any particular part of the union. All were bound to repel hostilities even though only one should be attacked; and the whole body guaranteed the possessions of each prince and community. In no case was war to be permitted between any members of the league, but every dispute was to be settled by a general diet, in which the different states were to have votes in proportion to their extent and importance. A representative body was to be established in every state; equality in civil and religious rights was secured to all branches of the christian religion, and several important civil privileges, such as the right of emigration, were guaranteed to the people. On November 5, 1816 the permanent diet commenced its sittings at Frankfort and the Austrian ambassador was chosen president. Some territorial exchanges were made in 1819, and in 1820 a definitive act was passed upon the organization of the league. Germany knew tranquillity under its new government, but the liberal notions of some of its princes were checked by Austria and Prussia.

AUSTRIA was fully reinstated in its importance by the second pacification of Europe, and the territorial arrangements made by the diet of Germany in 1819. The provinces in Italy were erected into *the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice;* and the Illyrian provinces into *the kingdom of Illyria.* The Emperor maintained absolute power in his own possessions, and influenced the conduct of neighbouring states by the extent and strength of his dominions: they had a surface of 12,060 square miles, with a population of 29,000,000 of inhabitants. Fearing the effects upon his Italian states of a revolutionary spirit which displayed itself in Naples and other parts of Italy in 1820, he caused the king of the two Sicilies to be summoned to a conference of the Holy Alliance, and in 1821 Naples and Piedmont were successfully invaded by Austrian troops, the independence of those countries was violated, and the total extinction of the wished for amelioration in the government of Italy followed.

PRUSSIA, like Austria, resumed its importance on the downfall of Bonaparte. The noble exertions made by this power were greatly to be attributed to the influence exercised by a society called *the league of Virtue*, which was formed in spite of the power of Bonaparte, and sanctioned by Frederick William III. The reconstruction of this monarchy was one of the most difficult tasks the congress of Vienna undertook to perform, and how it acquitted itself has been already noticed. The territorial arrangements however were not finally settled until 1819, when the sway of Frederick William III. extended over a surface of 5,028 square miles, with a population of nearly 11,000,000 of people. The court evinced a strong repugnance to any approach to democratic principles, but while it thus disappointed the hopes of some, it advanced the prosperity of the country, by fostering commerce and being prudent in its expenditure, and gathered strength for its support against foreign aggression.

The formation of THE NETHERLANDS into an independent kingdom under the rule of the house of Orange has been spoken of; but it should also be noticed that by a treaty of peace concluded between Holland and Great Britain previous to that transaction, the Dutch obtained the restoration of all their colonies conquered during the war, except the Cape of Good Hope, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. William I. was called to the throne of a limited and hereditary monarchy, and he appeared to appreciate justly the duties of his station. A representative constitution was adopted, and the king wisely preferred giving his attention to the improvement of his own dominions to interfering in the concerns of any other country. In 1816 he united with Great Britain in suppressing the atrocious piracies of the Algerines; and he seemed to disapprove of the interference of France in the affairs of Spain. By the second pacification of Europe, the surface of this kingdom was extended over 1,164 square miles, inhabited by 5,460,000 souls: it had also about 1,726,000 subjects in its colonies.

SWEDEN derived advantage from the active and successful part it took against Bonaparte. After the great battle at Leipzig, Bernadotte, the crown-prince, turned his arms especially against the Danes, and reduced Holstein and Sleswig. In January 1814, peace was concluded with Denmark, by which that power ceded Norway to Sweden, and was to receive in return Swedish Pomerania and Rugen. The Norwegians, however, resisted the fulfilment of the treaty, and elected prince Christian of Denmark as their king on July 17; but the crown-prince of Sweden marched an army into the country, when, after some hostilities, Christian resigned the government, and on November 4, Norway, retaining its own constitution as a separate kingdom, was finally united to Sweden. Charles XIII died on February 5, 1818, and was succeeded by Bernadotte, the crown-prince, as Charles XIV. He ruled with moderation, firmness, and good sense. In 1821 the storthing or diet decreed the abolition of the hereditary nobility in Norway.

For the loss of Norway, DENMARK received no adequate compensation. The resistance of the Norwegians was made a ground for depriving her of Swedish-Pomerania and Rugen, which she was compelled to cede to Prussia in exchange for the duchy of Lauenburg. Thus depressed, Denmark was reduced to a surface of 2,420 square miles with a population of 1,700,000 inhabitants.

The determined resistance of RUSSIA to her unprincipled invader, and the signal triumph she achieved have been already recorded with sufficient minuteness. By the peace with Turkey, which was concluded at Bucharest, the Pruth and the Danube were fixed as the boundaries of the two empires, and the Porte agreed not to exact from the Servians any other contributions than such as should be imposed with the concurrence of that people. With the return of peace Russia felt those blessings which ought to accompany it in an eminent degree. Alexander laboured sedulously for the improvement of his dominions. Moscow was no longer left in ruins but was restored to prosperity, and flourished in common with the rest of the empire. He also watched the conduct of the Porte most narrowly and more than once assumed a

threatening attitude against Turkey; but war was fortunately prevented, and Alexander concluded his reign in peace. He died in December 1825, and was succeeded by his second brother Nicholas I. who ascended the throne on his elder brother Constantine's renouncing it. A conspiracy was entered into by a part of the army to invest Constantine with the imperial authority, but that prince gave the design no encouragement, and it was entirely defeated. Nicholas pursued the policy of Alexander, and after some deceitful negociations, hostilities were commenced against Persia, and continued until November 28, 1827, when the preliminaries of peace were signed. A definitive treaty, however, was not agreed upon until February 22, 1828, when Persia ceded to Russia, Erivan on both sides of the Araxes, from the foot of Mount Ararat to the Caspian sea, and consented to the payment of a large sum of money towards defraying the expences of the war. Nicholas, professing his anxiety for the liberation of Greece, became, as already noticed, a party to the treaty of London of July 6, 1827. Shortly afterwards, however, Russia came in more direct collision with the porte. The emperor complained that the arrangements contained in a treaty made at Akermann in 1821, between the two powers, were not regarded by Turkey; and not receiving satisfactory explanations from the porte, he marched an army, in the spring of 1828, across the Pruth and the Danube, and also commenced hostilities on the eastern shore of the Black Sea. The Russians at first met with little opposition, but on investing the fortresses of Silistria, Shumla, and Varna, they experienced serious losses. Varna was at length entered, through the treachery of its governor, but Silistria and Shumla defied all assaults; and at the close of the campaign Russia found her army greatly weakened, and the spirit of the Ottomans invigorated rather than subdued.

We now turn to the history of GREAT BRITAIN, the power which sustained the most brilliant part in the important transactions of this period. The duke of York resumed the command of the army in May 1811, and under his superintendence it attained a state of unprecedented excellence. In November some serious riots occurred at Nottingham, occasioned by the introduction of machinery. During this year the Dutch possessions in Java were captured; and an English squadron triumphed over a French fleet in the Adriatic. On February 5, 1812, the restrictions imposed by the regency bill expired, and the whigs expected that the tories would be dismissed from power, but they were disappointed: the regent pursuing the course adopted by his father. In May the public was alarmed by the death of the prime minister, Mr. Perceval, who was shot by an assassin in the lobby of the house of commons. He was succeeded by the earl of Liverpool, who had for many years been an active member of the cabinet. Lord Castlereagh became the leading minister in the house of commons. The minister of the United States still complained loudly of the operation of the orders in council, and on his producing a copy of a French edict annulling the Berlin and Milan decrees with regard to American vessels, the objectionable ordinances were provisionally revoked. Bonaparte had completed his continental system by falsely dating the edict April 2, 1811. The boon, however, was only known in America when too late. In May, hostilities had taken place between an American frigate and a British sloop; and although it appeared that the American vessel had committed the first act of aggression, the president of the United States sent a violent message to the legislature of his country, in which he represented the conduct of Great Britain, from the year 1803, as a series of continual encroachment and aggression, and strongly recommended, though not in direct terms, an appeal to arms. This message excited a warm debate, but the legislature finally adopted it, and it was followed by a declaration of war on June 18. Great Britain had thus another enemy to contend with, and happily her strength and fortitude proved equal to the task: the incidents of this war, however, will be noticed with greater propriety in the history of the United States than in this place. The affairs of the East India company next occupied the attention of the parliament. The charter of that extraordinary and unrivalled body of merchants had nearly expired, and after a long examination of witnesses and documents, it was renewed only for twenty years, and on certain conditions. The company were allowed to retain the government of British India, and the exclusive trade to China, but the trade to India and the Oriental isles was declared open. It was also provided that a bishop and three archdeacons should be appointed for the British possessions in India. During 1813, 1814, both the court and the people watched the progress of affairs on the continent with intense anxiety, and while they hailed each new triumph of the allied arms with delight, they readily provided the immense subsidies which were necessary to the attainment of final success. Louis XVIII. had resided for some time at Hartwell, and on intelligence being received that the allies had entered Paris, he made his public entry into London on April 20, 1814, and embarked for France at Dover on April 24. On June 7, the emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia, together with marshal Blucher, the archduke Constantine, and a large suite of distinguished personages, arrived in London on the invitation of the prince regent, and were received by their illustrious host and all classes of the people with the utmost cordiality, and entertained with unexampled splendour: they re-embarked at Dover on June 27. A national jubilee was held on August 1, to celebrate the return of peace, and the completion of a century from the accession of the house of Hanover. The concluding event of this year, 1814, was not less gratifying. Peace was signed with America at Ghent, on December 24. The immense burden which had been thrown on the agriculturists by the war, rendered it necessary that they should have high prices secured to them for their produce, at the very time when the lower orders of the community were little able to pay them. The labouring classes looked for cheap bread on the return of peace, and when they found, in March 1815, that it was proposed to exclude foreign corn, for the advantage of the British grower, until the price should reach 80s. per quarter, some disturbances ensued. The measure, however, was adopted by the legislature, and the riots were suppressed. When Bonaparte a second time ascended the throne of France, one feeling animated both the court and people, and they considered no sacrifice as too great to effect his overthrow, which was happily accomplished by the genius and heroic bravery of their own commander and troops at the memorable battle of Waterloo. Some idea may be formed of the prodigious exertions made by Great Britain in the cause of humanity, good faith, and freedom, from the single fact that she expended in the continental wars, during the years 1813, 1814, and 1815, upwards of 100,000,000*l.* Though the peace now attained was calculated to endure, it did not give that immediate relief which had been anticipated. A prodigious debt had been incurred, and the vast establishments which had been formed could not immediately be reduced. The Barbary states having long committed atrocious piracies, a British squadron was sent to demand the liberation of all christian captives and the abolition of christian slavery. Tunis and Tripoli made the concessions required, without the exercise of force; but Algiers resisted, and it was not till that city had been severely bombarded that the dey complied with the demands of the British admiral. Some frigates of the Netherlands bore an honourable part in the action, which occurred on August 27, 1816. In the course of the year, considerable distress was felt both by the agriculturists and the manufacturers; and riots occurred in consequence in several counties, but they were soon repressed and did not materially encroach on the tranquillity of the realm. It was thought necessary, however, in the beginning of 1817, to suspend the

Habeas Corpus act, and to restrict political meetings. Further riots taking place, some of the leaders were tried, condemned, and executed, while others were acquitted. No sooner were the disturbances quelled, than a new affliction occurred. The princess Charlotte, who was greatly beloved by the nation, died in childbed, on November 6. During 1819 several tumultuary meetings were held, and some unprincipled demagogues were active in inciting the lower orders to disaffection. The ostensible object was to procure a radical reform in the government. At Manchester 60,000 persons of both sexes assembled illegally on August 16, and were not dispersed without some lives being lost. George III. died, in the 82nd. year of his age, on January 29, 1820, and was succeeded by the prince regent as George IV. On February 1, the gradual resumption of payments in cash (standard gold), was commenced by the bank of England. A new parliament was summoned, and on its meeting, after some animated debates, the royal revenue was settled; and the severity of the penal law was in some measure relaxed. On July 19, the king was crowned in the abbey at Westminster, and afterwards visited Ireland and Hanover. While he was in Ireland the queen died. The king visited Scotland in August 1822. In September the marquis of Londonderry, (lord Castlereagh) who had, since 1812, filled the office of secretary of state for foreign affairs, overcome with anxiety, and his constitution utterly disorganized by excessive mental labour, put a period to his existence. He was succeeded in office by Mr. Canning. In October 1823, British consuls were appointed to the emancipated states of South America. In 1824, some difficulties were experienced in preserving the settlement of Sierra Leone from the neighbouring savages, the Ashantees, who advanced in considerable force, and were not repelled without the loss of many British soldiers. Both in 1823 and 1824, considerable reductions were made in the taxation, and the country was fast recovering from the distress which had oppressed it. In 1825, owing to an undue circulation of paper money, a rash and inordinate spirit of speculation took possession of the public mind. Innumerable speculative companies were formed, for working the mines of South America and Mexico, and for other equally chimerical purposes. At length, as in the case of the South Sea scheme, bubble after bubble burst, and thousands were involved in distress. Several of the London and a great number of provincial bankers failed, which in a multitude of cases, extended the misery to persons who had no share in producing it. In Ireland a dangerous political association was formed, which took upon itself to hold regular sessions, and to levy money under the denomination of "Catholic rent." During this year an act was passed for its suppression, but it soon started into existence under another form. Great distress was felt in England in the commencement of 1826. In the manufacturing districts there were several riots, but they were suppressed, and a public subscription of 100,000*l.* was made for the relief of the unemployed artizans. On December 5, it was announced that Spain by connivance had permitted the invasion of Portugal, and the parliament gave its support to his majesty's ministers in sending a body of troops to Portugal for the maintenance of its independence. The duke of York, the heir presumptive to the throne, died on January 5, 1827; and on February 17, the earl of Liverpool, the head of the ministry, was attacked by apoplexy, from which he never recovered. Mr. Canning, an eloquent advocate of the Roman catholic claims, was authorised by the king to form a new administration, and on his assuming the first station, seven of his former colleagues immediately sent in their resignations. A new ministry was formed, composed of tories and whigs, but it was ill cemented, and its leader, after having made a treaty for the independence of Greece, died on July 8. Lord Goderich, formerly Mr. Robinson, who had adhered to Mr. Canning, was then appointed premier; but the ministry proved incompetent to its duties, and in the beginning of 1828, the duke of Wellington was authorised by the king to form a new administration. He did so, and being joined by several of his former colleagues, met the parliament in February as the first lord of the treasury. During the regency and the present reign, great architectural improvements were introduced into the metropolis; several arctic voyages of discovery were performed; and a variety of literary, scientific, and useful institutions, and humane charities were founded. At the close of this period the population of the British isles was estimated at about 21,000,000 of souls, and that of British India and other foreign possessions at about 90,000,000. The national debt exceeded 800,000,000*l.* sterling; and a revenue of upwards of 50,000,000*l.* was annually collected without the comforts of the people being much diminished.

The soil of SPAIN was freed from the invader in October 1813, but that wretched country was not restored to peace and prosperity. Ferdinand VII. concluded a treaty of peace with Bonaparte in the following December, and being liberated he returned to his dominions, when the cortes disowned the treaty. The war being at an end, Ferdinand dissolved the cortes on May 4, 1814, and resumed and exercised the powers of absolute government in the most odious manner. He imprisoned, banished, or degraded the most distinguished members of the cortes, abolished the liberty of the press, and re-established that horrible and accursed instrument of despotism and bigotry, the inquisition. But notwithstanding that these lamentable changes were effected with facility, there was still a considerable party opposed to them. In 1820, the discontented had become more powerful, and succeeded in effecting a revolution; but they carried matters to excess by proclaiming what they called the free constitution of 1812, a scheme of government wild and impracticable. The new cortes soon found themselves surrounded with difficulties; they had no revenue, for the American continental colonies had declared their own independence; the clergy and nobles who possessed wealth were the advocates of absolute power; and their opponents were strengthened by the encouragement of the active members of the holy alliance. Early in 1823, the ambassadors of Austria, Prussia, and Russia withdrew, and on April 7, a French army of 70,000 men crossed the Bidassoa for the suppression of the constitution. They effected this object without much difficulty; on November 13, Ferdinand VII. re-entered Madrid, and the sway of despotism and bigotry were restored. Many of the advocates of freedom found an asylum in Great Britain, while others perished on the scaffold or in dungeons, and Spain sunk into a state of impotence and misery. In 1826, Ferdinand countenanced some refugee Portuguese in invading Portugal, but was compelled to desist by the interference of Great Britain.

The court of PORTUGAL continued in Brazil, and the mother country was governed by a regency. In 1816 the queen died, and the prince of Brazil, who had long been regent, became king, as John VI. There was in this country, as in Spain, a party desirous for the overthrow of absolute power, and in 1820 they effected a revolution in favor of a free constitution. In the following year the king returned from Brazil after an absence of fourteen years. John VI. landed at Lisbon on July 4, and voluntarily swore to the new constitution, which resembled that of Spain. Soon after the king quitted Brazil, Portugal lost that important possession. The Brazilians had become too powerful to remain the dependents of a weak and disorganised state, and on October 12, 1822, they proclaimed their independence of and separation from Portugal, and don Pedro, the son of John VI. received the title and authority of emperor. The interference of France in the affairs of Spain, influenced the partisans of despotism in Portugal to adopt active measures for the restoration

of their favorite system. Don Miguel, the king's second son, was among the number, and in May 1823, a counter-revolution occurred at Lisbon, when the monarch was quietly re-instated in unrestrained power. On his death-bed, however, John VI. appointed his daughter Isabel Maria, to the regency of Portugal, to the exclusion of don Miguel and his party. John VI. died on March 10, 1826, and the princess was confirmed in the regency by don Pedro, who also gave a liberal constitution to the Portuguese, and resigned his claim to the crown in favor of his infant daughter. A large portion of the people, however, were adverse to freedom, and nothing but the firmness of Great Britain prevented Spain from actively interfering. But the country still continued in confusion, and in the beginning of 1828, don Miguel, who was at Vienna, having sworn to uphold the constitution, became regent. Scarcely had he landed in Portugal when the constitution was overthrown, despotism restored in its full extent, and the intended regent proclaimed king, as Miguel I. The infant queen sought an asylum in England.

The settlement effected in SWITZERLAND, on the first pacification of Europe, and ratified by the congress of Vienna, continued in force at the conclusion of this period, and was found advantageous and satisfactory to the cantons.

We have recorded the principal territorial arrangements made in ITALY by the congress of Vienna, and they were not materially affected by any subsequent transactions. Almost immediately after his return to Rome, May 24, 1814; the pope restored the order of Jesuits. Pius VII. died in 1823, and was succeeded by Leo XII.—Although reinstated in his dominions by his allies, Victor Emanuel, king of SARDINIA, had not capacity to maintain himself. In March 1821, a rash and ill-concerted insurrection was effected in Piedmont by the influence of the Carbonari, a sect of free politicians which was founded in Naples, when Victor resigned his crown to his brother Charles Felix; but the insurgents fled on the approach of an Austrian army.—Murat, as king of NAPLES, joined the allies in January 1814, against France, but concluding from the conduct of the congress of Vienna that it would not confirm him in his possessions, he again connected himself with Bonaparte, and attempted a revolution in his favor in Italy. He failed, however, entirely, and retired first to France and thence to Corsica, from which island he absurdly made a descent on Calabria with a few followers, was seized at Pizzo, condemned, and shot on October 13, 1815. Ferdinand IV. was restored as king of the Two Sicilies, but like the monarch of Sardinia, he was sustained only by foreign troops. A society called the Carbonari, had existed in Naples almost from the time of the French revolution, and its chief objects were, the dissemination of democratic principles and the establishment of democratic governments. Its influence extended even to Germany. In 1820, a revolution was effected by its exertions in Naples; and in the July of that year the king adopted and swore to a free constitution on the model of that of Spain. This change of system, however, alarmed the emperor of Austria, and Ferdinand IV. was summoned to attend the allied congress, which he did, and the consequence was that in January 1815, an Austrian army marched against Naples. The constitutionalists loudly professed it to be their determination to make an energetic resistance, but their courage evaporated as the enemy approached. After a slight affair, the Austrian army entered the capital in triumph on March 24, when the king abolished the constitution, and the old rule of bigotry and of despotism was re-established. Sicily in 1812, received a free constitution through the influence of Great Britain; but Ferdinand IV. annulled it as soon as the first pacification of Europe gave him security. The residence of the king and court in Naples, led to a popular desire of secession on the part of the Sicilians, and in 1820 they perpetrated some murderous scenes in Palermo, to produce that effect; but the insular subjects of Ferdinand IV. were even more contemptible than his continental ones, and he easily suppressed their efforts. Ferdinand died in 1825, and was succeeded by his son Francis Zavier Joseph.

After an unsuccessful campaign, TURKEY concluded a peace with Russia at Bucharest, on August 14, 1812: the Turks ceded Bessarabia and part of Moldavia to Russia, and the Pruth and the Danube were declared to be the boundaries of the two empires. Mahmoud II. being at peace with Europe, commenced a variety of important reformations, which for the most part, were calculated to enlighten his subjects and to give permanence to the empire. One of his undertakings was both arduous and dangerous, it being no less than the dissolution of the Janissaries, who had for centuries exercised a most powerful and alarming influence on the succession to the throne, and in other matters of the utmost consequence. By pursuing his intention with unwavering firmness, he succeeded, but not until much blood had been shed. While Mahmoud was prosecuting these changes, insurrections occurred in Wallachia, Moldavia, and the Morea, and in Candia and other islands. The Greeks, in the latter country, had long sighed for freedom from the Ottoman yoke, and when they found that the congress of Vienna took no notice of their condition, some few began to look for strength among themselves. Circumstances encouraged them. Ali, pacha of Albania, rejected the authority of the sultan, and acted more as an independent prince than as a subject. It was his policy, therefore, to favor the Greeks to a certain extent, and he did so; they were permitted to acquire fleets, and thus had the means of preparing for hostilities. But Wallachia and Moldavia, where Russia exercised a domineering influence, were selected as the first scenes of action. In 1821, Alexander Ypsilanti, son of a former hospodar, endeavoured to rouse the Moldavians to arms, but after being defeated, he was arrested by Austrian emissaries and imprisoned. This insurrection inflamed Mahmoud, who pretended that all the Greeks were implicated in it, and ordered a series of frightful executions. But severity did not check the spirit of revolt, which at once openly showed itself in Greece. Both the Turks and the Greeks perpetrated the most savage massacres and the most appalling cruelties. In February 1822, Ali perished, and his death enabled the Turks to employ a greater force against the Greeks, who had adopted a constitutional code, and had Corinth for their seat of government. Scio was barbarously devastated by the Turks; pillage, murder, and conflagration raged for several days; and it is computed that 25,000 persons of both sexes were put to death, and 30,000 women and children carried off as slaves. The Greeks lost Corinth, but captured the important station of Napoli di Romania. They appealed to the holy allies for assistance, but in vain; and in 1823, three hundred deputies met in a grove and resolved never to renounce their claim to independence. In the third campaign Corinth was recovered by the Greeks, but their dissensions among themselves, and their gross misconduct, retarded their advance to freedom. In the course of the fourth campaign, besides other barbarities, the isle of Ispara was laid desolate: the Turks commenced the dreadful work, and it was most inhumanly consummated by the Greeks. At this time a number of Englishmen and other foreigners, as private persons, assisted Greece, and her deputies raised loans in London. In 1825, the Morea was the chief seat of the war. Ibrahim pacha, with 14,000 men, took both old and new Navarino, and the sanguinary struggle was maintained with merciless and unabated fury, but without decisive advantage to either party. Europe witnessed the frightful contention with regret, and Great Britain, France, and Russia, seeing no prospect of its being brought to a close by the parties immediately engaged in it, joined in a treaty in July 1827, for the pacification of Greece. The porte denied

the right of those powers to interfere, and refused their mediation; but the allies persevered, their squadrons in the Mediterranean coalesced, and on the Turkish commander in the Morea refusing to stay hostilities, the combined squadrons destroyed the Turkish fleet at Navarino. A temporary calm followed, and after a slight renewal of hostilities, the Turkish commander agreed to evacuate the Morea. New difficulties, however, occurring, France despatched a body of soldiers to enforce the stipulations, and the Morea, before the close of 1828, was freed from the presence of the Mahomedan troops, but was still in a deplorable and unsettled condition. In the sketch of Russia the new war between that province and Turkey was noticed. In other respects the Turkish empire was more tranquil and improving than it had been for a considerable period.

The restrictions imposed upon ALGIERS, TUNIS, and TRIPOLI, by Great Britain, have been spoken of, and it is only necessary to add concerning them, that they continued to be the scenes of dreadful vice and brutality, and with the exception of Tunis, where European civilization was somewhat encouraged, knew no improvement. MOROCCO continued to be an independent kingdom, little known to the rest of the world, and alike disregarding it and disregarded by it. The other parts of AFRICA present an almost barren field for history. Several Europeans lost their lives in endeavouring to explore the interior, which after great labour continued to be but little known, and the whole of the country was in a state of barbarism, excepting the spots upon which Great Britain and some other civilized nations had fixed colonies.

Western PERSIA had been involved in war with Russia in 1809, and hostilities were concluded under the mediation of Great Britain, on October 12, 1813. Persia ceded to Russia, Daghestan, Schirwan, and all the western coast of the Caspian sea; renounced its pretensions on Georgia, Imeritia, Guriel, and Mingrelia; and acknowledged the exclusive right of Russia to have vessels of war on the Caspian. The boundaries of the two empires, however, were not precisely described, and that omission soon gave rise to new and tedious differences and negociations, which were followed by a renewal of hostilities by Russia, and Persia only obtained peace on the terms already stated. In 1822, hostilities were recommenced between Western Persia and Russia;—they were concluded in the following year, but renewed in 1828, as we have detailed in the history of Russia. In EASTERN PERSIA no event requiring remembrance occurred. Zéman Shah occupied the throne.

In INDIA the British added to their power and their dominions. Earl Moira (marquis of Hastings) assumed the governor-generalship of British India in 1812, and was compelled to make war on the rajah of Nepaul, in May 1814, in consequence of that chief having invaded the British territories contiguous to his own dominions. After surmounting many difficulties, the British possessed themselves of the rajah's capital, and a treaty of peace was concluded in March 1816, by which the rajah ceded some districts necessary for the better security of the British possessions. In 1817, it was found necessary to chastise severely the Pindarees, an association of provincial marauders, who had taken advantage of the Nepaulese war, and laid waste the province of Cuttack. They were protected and encouraged by several of the Mahratta chiefs, who had confederated for the overthrow of the British power, and among the most important were Scindiah and the peishwah of Poonah. The vigorous measures adopted by the marquis of Hastings overawed the first of those chiefs and disabled the latter. The peishwah, being taken, resigned all claim to the government of Poonah, and was pensioned liberally on engaging to live peaceably in the British territory. The Pindarees suffered severely, and two colonies were formed out of the remains of their bands, and successfully planted in the fertile districts of Gorruckpore and Boppal. The marquis of Hastings returned to England in 1822, when lord Amherst became governor-general. The Birmese had long viewed the British with hatred, and in September 1823, committed an act of open hostility, by taking forcible possession of the island of Shapuree. They were expelled, and an explanation demanded, but none satisfactory being given, and the Birmese proceeding to acts of aggression against Ghumbur Sing who was supported by the British as rajah of Cachar, war was commenced against them in the beginning of 1824, the events and results of which will be more properly noticed in the sketch of Birmah.

Minderajee-praw terminated a prosperous reign of thirty-seven years over BIRMAH in June 1819, and was succeeded by his grandson, the Engy Tekien, or prince royal. In 1820, the new monarch added Cassay to his dominions, and thus came into close contact with British India. The hostilities to which we have already alluded, soon followed, and that at the very moment when the Birmese were preparing to invade Siam. In their affairs with the British the Birmese displayed great bravery and unexpected skill. It was only after many severe conflicts that they were expelled from Cachar; and by advancing as far as Ramoo in the Chittagong province, they excited much alarm at Calcutta. But the brunt of the conflict fell upon the southern maritime provinces. On a large British armament anchoring off Rangoon, May 16, that town was abandoned and partially destroyed by the Birmese; it was completely desolated by subsequent obstinate conflicts. In the beginning of December, Maha Bundoola descended the Irrawaddy from Prome, with an army of 60,000 men; which after very great losses was compelled to retire towards the shores of Pegu; and at the end of 1824, the whole of the Birman possessions eastward of Pegu had fallen before the superiority of European tactics. Thus victorious, the British, commanded by general lord Combermere, gallantly persevered, and early in May 1825, had captured the city of Prome, taken possession of the kingdom of Arracan, and completely expelled the Birmese from Cachar and Assam. These events induced the Birmese to enter into negotiations for peace, and on June 3, 1826, a treaty was signed, by which Birmah ceded to the British, Assam and its dependencies, the four districts of Duacan, and the provinces on the coast of Tenasserim; and to the rajah of Cachar, Munipore; and also agreed to pay a considerable sum of money. The Birmese very soon renewed hostilities in the hope of gaining more favourable terms; but they were repulsed, and peace restored.

Of SIAM very little is known. It maintained its independence against the attacks of Birmah, and received a mission from the governor-general of British India in 1821. It is understood that the monarch then reigning, the son of Pe-ya-tac, has since died, and that his illegitimate son, Chroma Chit, has ascended the throne.

The history of CHINA presents no change which calls for notice. Lord Amherst arrived, at the close of 1816, on an embassy from Great Britain, but he objected to the etiquette required, and returned without producing any result. In 1820, Kia-King was succeeded on the throne by Taou-Kwang.—TONQUIN and COCHIN CHINA were ruled by Caung-Shung II. until 1820, when he died, and his second son, Ming-Meng (Shining Providence), succeeded to the throne.

We have hitherto left JAPAN unnoticed, because its existence was unimportant to the rest of the world, but it would not perhaps be correct to close our last period without some mention of its history. About 660 years before Christ, Japan was clearly separate as a kingdom from China, and it was governed by a *Dairi*, who united in his own person the supreme spiritual and temporal authority; until 1188, when the kubo, or general, became the temporal monarch. Marco Polo first brought intelligence to Europe of Japan; shortly after 1541, the Portuguese commenced trading with it,

as did the Dutch in 1611; and the Japanese harbours have been closed against every European nation except the latter, since 1637. The people are said to be highly civilized.

AMERICA made considerable steps towards that consideration to which its immense extent and natural wealth entitle it. The UNITED STATES continued to increase in population, territory, wealth, and importance, but they derived little honor or advantage from the war upon which they rashly entered with Great Britain in 1812. Notwithstanding the host of foes she had to contend with, the mother country had still ample means to repel the aggressions of her former colonies. An American force under brigadier Hull invaded Canada, but the commander and the whole of his troops were compelled by the British to surrender at Fort-Detroit, August 16. A second army was despatched on a similar mission, and suffered a similar fate near the river Niagara in October. At sea the Americans were more fortunate; three of their men-of-war captured British ships of inferior force; and their privateers acquired considerable booty. In 1813, Mr. Madison was re-elected president, and in the June of that year the British frigate Shannon, captured the American frigate Chesapeake, in sight of Boston. Some severe naval actions were fought on lakes Ontario and Erie. On August 24, 1814, the city of Washington, the capital of the United States, was taken by the British, and the public buildings destroyed; and in the following December a peace was concluded at Ghent, in which the questions of maritime search and neutral rights were left undetermined. In 1817, Mr. James Monroe was elected president, and was so popular in his administration as to be re-elected in 1821. In that year West Florida was formally taken possession of; and a settlement formed on the coast of Africa. In the following year, the United States recognised the independence of the South American republics, and by cultivating their good will obtained some commercial advantages. In 1825, Mr. John Adams was elected president. From the conclusion of the war the finances of the country had been well attended to, and at the close of 1828, the condition of the United States was prosperous. Numerous towns and villages were seen flourishing over tracts of country before unknown; manufactures, education, and the usual accompaniments of civilization and independence, were making their appearance in various parts; and the ships of the United States were to be met with in every part of the world.

BRAZIL, as has been already recorded, entirely shook off the yoke of Portugal in 1822; when don Pedro, the son of John IV. of Portugal was declared emperor, and a constitution was adopted. The independent congress held its first session in May 1823. In 1825, the king of Portugal, through the mediation of Great Britain, formally transferred Brazil to don Pedro, when treaties of amity were formed between the three powers. Of the part don Pedro took in the affairs of Portugal, enough has already been said.

The revolutionary feeling which displayed itself in SPANISH AMERICA during the last period was successfully exerted in this. Cumana, in conjunction with five other provinces, proclaimed themselves a republic, under the name of VENEZUELA; and were followed in 1816 by BUENOS AYRES. MEXICO, after a struggle, became independent in 1821, and Iturbide, the independent leader, was proclaimed emperor in 1822. In 1823, however, he was compelled to abdicate, and he perished the following year in an attempt to regain his power. In the mean time a federal republic was formed. In 1820, CHILI declared its independence. PERU was lost to Spain in 1821, principally through the exertions of general San Martin and lord Cochrane, an English commander. All New Granada adopting the spirit evinced in Venezuela, the republic of COLOMBIA was formed, after a long and arduous struggle, by its liberator, Simon Bolivar, who in 1822 occupied Quito. A new state was also formed in PARAGUAY; and some of the Spanish provinces were converted into a republic called BOLIVIA. In 1823, Great Britain virtually acknowledged the independence of some of the new states, by appointing consuls to Mexico, Colombia, Peru, Chili, and Buenos-Ayres. Those beautiful countries were thus at length wrested from the cruel misgovernment and debasing dominion of Spain, but a great majority of their inhabitants had been too long familiar with oppression, and associated with bigotry and ignorance, to be fit to enjoy suddenly the blessings of freedom, and to rank among the settled communities of the civilized world. Up to the close of 1828, the new republics were the scene of continual internal discord, and they had atchieved little more than the first great step towards their establishment as independent powers.

Christophe destroyed himself in 1820, in consequence of a revolt, and HAYTI was formed into one republic under Boyer, as its president. The payment of a considerable sum of money afterwards induced France to acknowledge its independence, and it enjoyed tolerable tranquillity and some commerce.

THE END.

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